

The Century Social Science Series

ORGANIZING THE COMMUNITY

A REVIEW OF PRACTICAL PRINCIPLES

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*To the faculty and students of the
Missouri School of Social Economy,
whose generous interest and enthusiasm
have inspired the writing of this book*

PREFACE

THIS book is written with the hope that it will interest college students, men and women, in the fascinating subject of community organization, and that it will give, not only to students, but to anyone already active in organizing communities, some practical suggestions. The material has been gathered during the course of a number of years and the author is indebted to friends and co-workers without number, and especially to those members of survey committees and welfare boards who have given so unstintedly of their time and thoughtful energy to the work of improving their home cities. Mention must also be made of the students in the different classes of the Missouri School of Social Economy who have responded so enthusiastically in the class room, and who, having gone out as community leaders, have sent back reports of their successes and failures and the methods which they have found practicable.

The author is especially grateful to those friends who gave so much time in patient perusal of the original manuscript and offered suggestions for its revision; to Professor Richard T. Ely and Professor Don D. Lescossier, of the University of

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A discussion of the organization in the city, which is touched upon briefly, has been purposely omitted as constituting a subject deserving treatment in a separate volume. Community organization has been handled from the standpoint of the country, the small town and the county, the problems of which are filling the horizon of social work.

B. A. McCLENAHAN.

ST. LOUIS, April 17, 1922.

FOREWORD

COMMUNITY organization represents a new development in social work. Fortunately, it is based on fundamental democratic principles and therefore builds wisely for the future. Although it is possible to organize a community from the top down and to carry on the work so organized for a considerable period, nevertheless the only right way is to take the community into the confidence of the worker and to construct an organization based on the best sentiment and the goodwill of the people. An organization formed in this way rests on a secure basis and performs a genuine service to its constituents.

In this book the principles and methods of democratic community organization are set forth. Details are given, when necessary, to guide the organizer in his practical work. Illustrative material is added to enforce conclusions.

This book is designed to fill the need of a guide for the development of community organization and should serve effectively in this capacity.

GEORGE B. MANGOLD

INTRODUCTION

MANY difficulties and uncertainties confront the social worker, the teacher, the clergyman, or the interested citizen when he studies his home community and considers what may be done to make it more attractive, more alert socially, more active, and more progressive. Everywhere people are asking, "What can we do?" and "How shall we do it?" These questions are the popular reaction to the need for some definite plan through which community spirit may become active and potent—the need for community organization.

The writer has come in intimate contact with this problem in small cities, towns, villages, and rural districts. In some communities brief surveys were made and definite plans of organization proposed and adopted. In others the need was no less present, but the people were not ready for a coöperative social venture. As a result of varied experiences, the conclusion was reached that the need was not for more or different organizations, but for a pooling of interests, an actual combination of efforts, a reorganization on a coöperative basis with a concrete and simple program which could be carried out by the people themselves and which should revolve around the most pressing problem or combination of problems, whatever that might be. The corollary

necessarily followed that no plan could be set down as the ideal one, but that, on the contrary, the plan presented must be as varied as the problems demanding solution and must be made to conform to local needs and resources. It is true that certain general rules can be formulated and different types of organization indicated, but always much leeway must be given and every allowance made for local peculiarities.

This book is an attempt to put into definite form the principles and methods of community organization that have been literally hammered out through actual experience in helping communities work out their social salvation. Concrete illustrations of forms of organization are given, as well as an outline of procedure for the worker entering a strange community as its community secretary. Always the reader must keep in mind that the methods and procedure here given can be used only as suggestions, since the very nature of community organization demands a flexibility of form and a variety of activity to challenge the most resourceful.

Community organization is the special contribution of the day to social work, and to understand its significance the spirit of social work itself must be understood. Social work as a profession has developed only within a comparatively brief time. Its history can be very positively traced through the different humanitarian movements that led to special lines of social welfare

activity, such as organized charities, social settlements, social centers, and child welfare and health organizations. It is the expression of an ideal that is permeating law, medicine, the ministry, literature, and government—the ideal of social responsibility.

The story of the development of society reveals the basic principle of social service of to-day. Anthropology and sociology have established the fact that in the misted past men came together in increasingly large groups until the state resulted. The early struggles were for sheer existence. Together men overcame physical difficulties, learned to make tools, and conquered natural forces. At the same time that this struggle with physical forces was being waged, men were building custom, tradition, religion, and primitive educational and governmental institutions. All of these were at first the unconscious outgrowth of the need to control the group for success in warfare; but as the years passed they became instruments for the conscious effort to better social conditions. Just as men from simple beginnings learned how to dominate in large measure the physical world, so they will in the end master social inequalities and injustices. The recognition of the fact that men together can accomplish social mastery is the basis of a new social philosophy. In practice it means that democracy must inspire every social welfare movement. Together men must remove the handicaps, social,

economic, and political, that limit the development of their fellow men; and in proportion as men accomplish this task the individual will be freed to work out his own salvation. Community organization is the modern interpretation of the new social philosophy.

The community organizer must necessarily be a trained social worker, conscious of the fact that, as he molds community life, he is limiting or enlarging the opportunities of the individual citizen. While he works from a community point of view, he works with people, and the ideals of conduct dear to the social worker must necessarily be his. The spirit of modern social effort forbids autocratic dictation of the lives of others; but promotes real helpfulness and friendliness. As a consequence the present-day social worker is earnest, honest, sincere; or he has no right to consider himself one. It is a dangerous policy to meddle light-mindedly with the lives of other people, even though one takes such liberty with his own life. Besides, the community organizer works not with any one group but with all groups, and the very diversity of his tasks demands an unusual degree of poise and self-control. A certain dignity and a positive professional spirit with reference to courtesies due even the most casual acquaintance mark the well trained man or woman. These standards of individual conduct are especially significant in view of the fact that in any phase of social work the social worker is

dealing with the most subtle, delicate thing in the world—personality.

The community organizer comes in touch with all types of people, and to be successful he must be able to get the other person's point of view and work from and be guided by it. If he attempts to force his own point of view upon the individual or the community, in the end he is doomed to failure. On the other hand, he must utilize both the individual citizen's attitude of mind and the temper of the group in solving the local problems. He must think clearly and he must have trained vision, so that any social situation may be appreciated in its right proportions and the problem it represents may be accurately formulated and understood in its relations with other problems.

Finally, the community worker must not confine himself to the task for each day and settle down within the narrow limits of one particular "position": he must be able to adapt himself to many and sometimes unexpected demands for service; he must be vitally interested in life and its absorbing relationships; brimming over with the joy of living; enthusiastic; sharing in various activities; acquainted with modern novels, dramas, and poetry; a normal, active, healthy, happy citizen—not set apart, but none the less consecrated to bettering the conditions of living, and inspired with the ideal of the common interests and the common welfare of all men.

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**ORGANIZING
THE COMMUNITY**

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CHAPTER I

THE COMMUNITY

DEFINITIONS

MANY words and phrases in current usage lack definite content. They serve as shibboleths of popular theories and are loosely used by the general public. In the last few years two such words have been heard from pulpit and platform, seen in the newspapers, magazines, and books, and discussed freely by the uninitiated. At the same time these words are pregnant with real significance. They are *community* and *neighborhood*. What do they mean? How shall they be defined? A few attempts have been made, but no general conclusion seems to have been reached as to how the two words shall be differentiated. In this book effort has been made to keep the words distinct in meaning and to develop the vital character of the relationship between them.

“**Community.** A body of people having common organization or interests, or living in the same place under the same laws and regulations”

(*Webster*). In this study the definition just given has been taken as a basis. A *community* is a social unit with definite territorial boundaries, with common laws, common interests, common privileges, and *usually* with a common organized government. This formally organized social unit may be made a socially minded group of people with conscious community or group spirit and with a consciousness of group needs. When this result is attained and the unit becomes active for promoting its own welfare, community organization has been effected. The community may be concretely regarded as a city, a town, a village, a township, or a county.

A very succinct definition of *community*, similar to the one already given, is the following: "A *community* is a unit of territory and population characterized by common economic and social experiences and interests."¹ There are two basic ideas underlying an understanding of the word *community*: one is that of social cohesiveness, and the other that of a high degree of self-sufficiency.

Diffendorfer says: "The word *community* signifies a population group which has become socially conscious and is working together as one body to satisfy common needs or ambitions. The real community is one that has organized its population, invented efficient social machinery, and has trained effective social engineers to make use of

¹ Morse, Hermann N., "The Underlying Factors of Rural Community Development," N. C. S. W., 1919, p. 553.

all its available resources for all the people within the community. In short, a community is a community when it has developed adequate social machinery to connect human needs with available resources.”² However, even though a community is dormant, perhaps socially dead, it is still a community. There is a definite geographical location, a population of certain size and various social institutions, including schools, churches, government. The problem existing in the community is how to apply its strength to the purposeful elimination of its weaknesses—the problem of community organization.

In considering the rural community, various authorities have given different definitions. The United States Census classifies all groups of people numbering fewer than 2500, whether living in incorporated towns or unincorporated territory, as rural; and above 2500 as urban. As a matter of fact, a town of 2500 is potentially larger than the figure indicates, since almost invariably it draws to it the patronage of country dwellers and near-by small villages. A rural community usually centers about a village or town that is the trading, educational, and social center.

Butterfield defines a rural community in the following words: “A true *community* is a social group that is more or less self-sufficing. It is big enough to have its own centers of interest—its

² Diffendorfer, Ralph E., “The Church and the Community,” p. 4.

trading center, its social center, its own church, its own school-house, its own grange, its own library, and to possess such other institutions as the people of the community need. It is something more than a mere aggregation of families.”³

Galpin suggests a standard definition as follows: “That the term *community*, when construed in a technical sense in reference to farm populations, be employed to designate the population-group which is formed by a village or small city or city, together with all the farm families making this village or city their regular business center.”⁴ He also has referred to the territory included as a “trade zone.” The word *rurban* has been coined for this type of community. Galpin has recommended “that the term *country*, when used in a rural sense, apply to the areas outside the limits of villages and cities, incorporated or unincorporated.”⁵

In considering the content of the term *rural community* the author desires to call attention to additional factors not adequately presented in the foregoing definitions. A rural community may not have a common local organized government, since many of the residents will live outside the town limits and therefore will not pay town taxes. However, all the residents are as a rule under the

³ Butterfield, Kenyon L., Introduction to pamphlet “Mobilizing the Rural Community,” by E. L. Morgan, p. 9.

⁴ Galpin, C. J., “Proceedings of the First National Country Life Conference,” 1919, p. 128.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 127.

same county government. The rural community in some parts of the country, as for example Massachusetts, is co-extensive with the town. In other states it may be limited for organization purposes within certain boundaries, such as county, township, consolidated school district lines, or simply main roads. The *rural community*, then, may be defined as *a social unit composed of a population center, together with the farm families using it as their trading center, with definite territorial boundaries, with common laws, common interests, common privileges, and the latent capability of being organized for co-operative action.*

In any treatment of community organization the distinction between the terms *community* and *neighborhood* must always be observed. A *neighborhood* is a group of people living in close proximity. Its boundaries may or may not be defined. It forms a division of the larger organization of society, the community, which is often made up of several neighborhoods. It is the focus for the influences operating in the community, and exhibits in unmistakable fashion the results of those influences on the individual and the family. Robert A. Woods has said that the neighborhood is the ultimate testing-place of all social remedies and reforms; that it is the unit of measurement of social well-being.

The neighborhood may be a section of the community in which immigrants live, and which, be-

cause of this fact, takes on a certain specific character; it may be a school district held together because of the common interest in the children; it may be an outlying rural district in which the few neighbors are cut off from any large share in the community because of their isolation. More often its unity will not be very apparent and it will have no conspicuous characteristics except that of a group of families living near one another.

LIFE IN THE SMALL TOWN

Small towns are of various types: the suburban town, which is a residence community for people employed in a large near-by city; the pleasure resort, which draws its population during the holiday periods and has an uncertain stability; the small villages made up of laborers brought in for a harvest-time of some special crop, such as the sugar-beet, cotton, or fruit of different kinds; the company-owned town built around some factory or manufacturing plant, where the residents themselves have little to say about the administration; and the mining camp, with its monotonous rows of squalid, unpainted houses, with yards filled with rubbish or carpeted with cinders. The towns that have just been indicated constitute peculiar problems and must be dealt with individually. The conditions vary so greatly that the form of organization must be designed specially for each community, and can be planned only after a careful local study.

The communities considered in this chapter are the typical centers for agricultural territory and are permanent and autonomous in their constitution. They are largely the communities of the Middle West, especially of the Mississippi Valley, including both northern and southern states. They are usually more or less homogeneous; their population is ordinarily largely native; they are fairly, if not very, prosperous; and they still retain much of the old pioneer spirit. This type of community may be highly individualistic and ultra-conservative. However, it may be convinced of the need for action, and, once convinced, the sturdy will-to-accomplish will carry the adopted program through. In this part of the country the comparative freedom from tradition and the unlimited opportunities for social development must appeal to the more adventurous social workers. The social welfare field here is almost virgin, and tillage is certain to yield a rich return. In the South the problem of the negro complicates the solution, but does not make it impossible, and community organization is being successfully undertaken there.

In discussing towns of various sizes it is difficult to draw a line of division. The village of less than 1000 will have many of the characteristics of towns as large as 5000, and the city of 25,000 will duplicate many of the problems of the town of 5000. The town of fewer than 5000 is often largely rural in its interests. It is usually the

trading center for the rural districts and has retained much of the simplicity of country life. The yards are large and the houses are usually of good size with plenty of light and air. Many of the smaller communities have the main street paved, and if there is a public square in the center of the town, often the paving will extend around it. Electroliers make the main street a "white way," though frequently the other streets are insufficiently lighted, and the school yards and the park, if there is one, acquire a bad reputation because of being poorly lighted or entirely dark. Many villages of 1000 or 1200 and small towns under 5000 have a municipal water plant and sewer system. Often, however, even in cities of 20,000 or more, use of the sewer system is not required, or if there is an ordinance requiring toilet connections it is not enforced. As a result, outside toilets are used, and these are not always kept in sanitary condition. Sometimes the offensive odor from these toilets is noticeable for a distance of several blocks. Wells and cisterns supplying the drinking water are often in such insanitary locations that contamination is easily possible. Garbage and refuse of various kinds, including manure-piles around the barns, are not removed, but are permitted to remain undisturbed, and consequently serve as breeding-places for flies. The individualistic spirit of the farm obtains in large measure in the village, and the condition of the home and of its immediate surroundings is re-

garded as being largely a personal rather than a public matter.

The small town almost always presents another problem that is equally important for consideration—the problem of recreation. A survey (by the author) of a town of 3000 showed that, while each of the four largest churches had an auditorium to accommodate their respective congregations, and while there was a small assembly hall in the court-house, there was no hall large enough for a community gathering. An open-air tabernacle built of steel was used occasionally in the summer for union church services, and had in the past been used for Chautauqua assemblies, but it was not so built that it could be inclosed and heated for use in the winter. This lack of a possible community social center handicapped every effort to organize a community club or hold mass-meetings for the discussion of local problems.

There were two motion-picture theaters, one open every night and the other on Friday and Saturday nights. The town owned a beautiful little library building well equipped for adults. An attractive children's room was being used as a store-room for books and magazines. The building was not open on Sundays, even for quiet reading. The school had no gymnasium, and the largest room in the building had been condemned as unsafe for large gatherings. Two of the high-school teachers had voluntarily given some instruction to the pupils in football and basketball,

and the girls had had a very little folk-dancing. There was one small group of Camp Fire Girls, which was exclusive and rather snobbish. A boys' club had been organized, but had been allowed to die for want of a leader. After school the boys and girls strolled around the court-house square, and almost the entire community promenaded there on Saturdays and Sundays. The boys had a convenient "loafing-place" in the most popular restaurant; the girls had only the streets.

Among the adults a few far-sighted parents had recognized the need for some constructive amusements for the boys and girls; others felt, and frankly so expressed themselves, that the boys and girls ought to be doing some kind of work and not be encouraged to play more than they were already doing. There was a seeming inability on the part of the latter group to recognize that the desire for good times is natural and normal, and that it must be satisfied in healthful ways or will inevitably find an outlet in undesirable activities.

Sometimes the small town is puritanical in its attitude toward recreation, so that the social dance and theater are condemned by the adults. They may, however, be surreptitiously enjoyed by the boys and girls. Usually, where this spirit exists, the townspeople make no attempt to substitute what they consider proper recreation for the kind they so unhesitatingly condemn. The lack of wholesome recreational facilities is very common

in the smaller towns, and is largely responsible for the juvenile delinquency, shiftlessness, and lowered moral standards that may exist.

Often the seeming lack of potential leadership is a handicap in the little town, even though there should be a more or less well defined feeling of the need for a community-get-together movement. No community undertaking can hope to succeed if it depends entirely upon imported leadership. As a matter of fact, there is rarely a community that does not have individuals capable of successful leadership. Their inertia may be due to indifference, to doubt of their own ability or to ignorance of feasible and simple methods of procedure. Sometimes local jealousies impede progress. For instance, in one town, observed by the writer, a certain woman of some wealth had promoted virtually every social welfare agency, and the other residents had come to resent what they considered her feeling of superiority; as a consequence, any undertaking she proposed was apt to fail. Eventually the town undertook a local survey and adopted a centralized community social program, but its undoubted success was largely due to the fact that the work was done while this woman was out of town. Other citizens felt that now they had an opportunity to demonstrate their own ideas of what the town needed, and they worked with a united will and a surprising effectiveness.

Occasionally a line of social division drawn in

early days has become fixed and stands in the way of community activity. The railroad tracks, a street, a river, or some artificial boundary separates the favored and the unfavored or less favored. One incident typified this distinction very clearly. A lecture on the development of community spirit had been given in the assembly-room of the newly erected high school. A woman approached the lecturer at the close of the program, and, with eyes intense yet troubled, said very earnestly: "That was a splendid talk, but I do wish it could have been given to the people who live across the tracks, because really, you know, we don't need it up here on the hill." In her mind, the railroad tracks prevented any conception of a united community becoming practically significant.

In the smaller town and city over-organization often presents a serious problem. The failure to recognize this condition has many times proved to be the unsuspected obstacle to success in a community venture. People belong to so many different organizations that they regard what seems to be only another addition to the already long list as a decided annoyance and imposition. In a town of 5000 people a social survey revealed the fact that there were one hundred and eighty-nine organized groups. Only associations with actual though sometimes simple form of organization were included in the canvass. Outside of the churches, there were sixty-three women's

and girls' societies, consisting of social and study clubs, women's lodges, and four Camp Fire groups. Ninety-eight were religious groups made up of the churches, brotherhoods, women's aid and missionary societies, Sunday-school and organized Sunday-school classes with officers and club formation, Bible-study groups, the Y. W. C. A., and the high-school Y. M. C. A. Twenty-three were men's business and social clubs and lodges, and this figure also included the four Boy Scout patrols. There were four musical organizations and one social club composed of both men and women. Until the names of the societies were submitted, such a total—one hundred and eighty-nine—seemed almost unbelievable. This fact of excessive organization, however, was not given in the report of the survey as a criticism, but as an illuminating factor in the social scheme of the city, and was actually used as the most telling argument for a centralized social welfare program. It was pointed out that every group had been organized as the result of the desire for some kind of activity, even though it might have been nothing more than the spending of a pleasant afternoon. The question was then put squarely to the citizens whether or not this desire for activity might not be expressed through a coördinated and coöperative plan for common welfare in which all groups might have a share and through which each citizen might serve the home town and help to improve the community as a whole.

Life in the small town or city of from 2500 to 25,000 people, especially in the typical community about which this chapter is concerned, is socially compact. General acquaintance is widespread. Many of the citizens have known each other all their lives; they attended school together, played together, perhaps even fought each other. After school-days there followed the sometimes exciting rivalries for position in lodge, church, politics, and business. But withal life became rich in its intimate friendships and personal social relationships. The town has been home and the personal note has always dominated. The town of this size is really only an enlarged village. The traveler from one of these smaller Middle West towns going to such a city as New York instantly senses the difference. It has been well phrased in the following lines, the soliloquy of a weary villager on his first visit to a big city:

I'm lonely, homesick: Western ways are mine.
Our cities are so homelike, human, kind.
In contrast—your indifference, their quick warmth.
They note my life and watch me climb or fall,
They bid me God-speed on my journeys; give
Me welcome home.

You, cool, blasé, brand my
Enthusiasm crass; repulse me with
A dignity assumed to frighten me—
You would repress my Western energy,
Yet envy me my larger faith.

It is true, however, that this same widespread acquaintance has its disadvantages. Where

every one knows every one else, gossip is general. Individual affairs are common property and frankly discussed. Besides, every small town has its established social customs and traditions, its standards of conduct; and when any man or woman, boy or girl transgresses these standards, swift condemnation follows. The attitude of the small town is apt to be rather narrow and somewhat harsh toward social eccentricity or unconventionality. Once an individual is labeled as a failure, as peculiar, as dishonest, as morally delinquent, as "anarchist" or as "Bolshevik," it becomes almost impossible for him to regain a position of social stability or influence. .

As a rule, in the small town public officials are poorly paid, and the man who is best equipped to render service either refuses to be burdened with the thankless task or is indifferent as to how the local administration is carried on. Sometimes, because of friendship or personal animosities, there is a hesitancy on the part of officials to enforce local ordinances. For example, a physician acting as health officer hesitated to order the cleaning up of certain filthy privies, even in the face of a typhoid epidemic, because they were on property belonging to a wealthy and influential but not socially minded fellow resident. Matters that should arouse the community to prompt action are ignored, stoically accepted, amusedly or cynically regarded as the business of a few well meaning but insignificant cranks, or committed to

the care of the Ladies' Aid Society or the Women's Club.

Often the only conception of social service is "charity work." A few families are regarded as "poor families." They have always been poor and the town considers that they always will be poor. For the most part, they are neglected until Thanksgiving or Christmas, when they are loaded down with provisions for weeks to come, and then forgotten until the generous impulses again stir at the next holiday season. Ordinarily no effort is made to force the non-supporting father to care properly for his family; to insist upon the children's regular school attendance; to remove abused or neglected children from improper surroundings; to care for the mentally defective; to prevent immorality and illegitimacy; to remedy bad housing; or to improve the sanitary and health conditions of "the bottoms," "shanty town," "the flats," "the packing-house district," or any other despised and neglected neighborhood.

The "homeless men," "tramps," "hoboes," or transient men are more or less disregarded, except when they come to the back door for a meal or some discarded clothing. In a town of 6000 the small one-room jail was "hospitably" thrown open to the tramps as a lodging-house. There was a small stove in the center of the room, and on this the men prepared the food that they begged at houses and stores. In other communities,

transient men are permitted to sleep on the floor of the jail. They may be given their breakfast; more often, however, when morning comes they are simply ordered to move on. In another community of 5000 a coöperative plan was adopted by the town marshal and the welfare secretary. Able-bodied men were lodged at the jail and given work to do at a wood-pile in the jail yard. Every man understood that the wood cut would be used as fuel by needy families. In return for the work the men performed at the jail, the welfare secretary gave them orders for their meals at a restaurant until regular employment could be secured for them. If the men were not able to work, they were given medical treatment by the city physician, temporarily lodged at the jail, and furnished meals by the welfare secretary.

The petty thief, the disturber of the peace, and the drunkard are likewise of little concern to the citizens of the average small town. Arrests are casually and easily made, and certain offenders soon become chronic criminals or "repeaters." Little or nothing is done to rehabilitate them, and they drift aimlessly along, serving out their short sentences in the town jail. Occasionally a man or woman is committed to the reformatory or penitentiary for some more serious offense. If the sentence is suspended during good behavior, it is no one's business to take a personal interest in the man or woman and serve as probation officer to encourage right living.

Perhaps one of the most appalling conditions in the small town is the neglect of the child. Child welfare is not even a "catch" phrase in some communities. In many cases the moral and social training that the child must have to become a responsible citizen is a negligible quantity. To a large degree the task is unhesitatingly left to the school, with such help as the Sunday-school can give. Usually the only recognized plan of treatment for the delinquent child is the reformatory, and for the orphaned, neglected, or abandoned child the orphanage. The advantage of placement in private homes, either by boarding or adoption, is rarely appreciated. The parent-teacher associations are helping to stimulate an intelligent understanding of the child in all the aspects of his life, mental, physical, moral, and social, and this will doubtless bear results in a saner program for the child's welfare.

Occasionally there takes place in the small town the barbarous public exhibition of orphaned or semi-orphaned children to excite the sympathy of men and women in order to find homes for them. One such performance witnessed by the author will never be forgotten. A dozen children were brought from a distant state and placed upon the stage of a theater, which was filled even in the lobby with half-hysterical men and women. The woman who had charge of the children gave a brief talk in which she told the history of each child who sat waiting for a home. The children

were then numbered, and ushers passed down the aisles with pencils and slips of paper upon which the future foster-parents were to indicate which child they desired. These slips were then collected and taken behind the scenes, where they were examined by the local committee. If the applicant for a child was considered a reputable citizen, the child was given to him. There was apparently little appreciation of the need for knowing the kind of home the applicant for the child maintained or anything about his character and social life beyond the facts that he paid his bills and had committed no crime.

During this process the audience became more and more excited. Women wept and cried out that the proceeding was as bad as the old slave market. This overwrought nervous condition communicated itself to the children, and some of them sobbed throughout the entire time they were on the stage—a period of more than two hours. Needless to say, the effect of the whole proceeding upon the children, the uncertainty of placement and the suspense that accompanied the long wait in the theater, were inevitably hardening to their sensibilities.

The woman in charge said that the homes in which the children were placed would all be carefully investigated, and that the children would be visited at least once a year. However, some of the homes in which this woman had placed children were visited by the local state agent, and

in several instances it was discovered that the children were not permanently located and that new homes had to be found for them. For example, one little girl had been placed in a home where there were only an old father and mother and a grown feeble-minded son. Some people had taken children on the impulse of the moment, and had regretted it afterward. One little chap of six had been taken with his younger brother by a couple who wanted a little boy. After much persuasion, they had accepted the older boy too, but they explained that they had done so against their better judgment and that they were not going to keep the older child. This little fellow was all unconscious of the impending disaster. He was supremely happy in his new home and brought out with a great deal of pride the photographs of "his" grandpa and "his" grandma. He had adopted every person and every animal on the place, and his joy in them was pathetic. One fairly shuddered at what must be his disillusionment when he was thrust out of "his" family. His joyous faith in people would inevitably be broken, and there might be thus thoughtlessly engendered the seeds of bitterness and cynicism.

In view of the various social problems that are to be found in the smaller towns and cities, the necessity for community organization, to give consistent and continuous attention to them in the

attempt to solve them, must be recognized as imperative.

LIFE IN THE RURAL COMMUNITY, ESPECIALLY
IN THE COUNTRY

Since the rural community, according to the definition adopted in this book, includes both the population center and the people who live in the open country adjacent, the problems of the rural community will include both those of the town and those of the country. Both must be considered in approaching an understanding of the rural community. This peculiarity of a twofold population group is often intensified by the lack of understanding, and even antagonism, that may exist between the townsman and the farmer. They forget that their interests are mutual, that the town depends upon the farmer for its prosperity and that the farmer depends upon the town for his marketing, his recreation, his schools, and his churches. The town is the farmer's social center.

But back of the problem of the relationship between town and country, underlying all the social problems of the rural district, is the economic problem—that of making farming profitable. The solution of the economic problem is complex, and is dependent upon many factors, such as: methods of increasing fertility of the soil; crops that can be most profitably raised on the particular land; breeds of stocks that thrive best in the climate and on available food supply; conservation of farm

products; farm labor and farm machinery; farm business methods, including coöperative enterprises for buying, selling, and manufacturing; farm accounting and bookkeeping; and transportation. These problems are the concern of both the farm-owner and the tenant. However, the tenant's problems are made more acute by his uncertain tenure of the farm, short leases, and high rents growing out of the continued increase in the value of farm-lands.

While an appreciation of the economic problem is necessary for a complete understanding of the social problems, one other phase of the situation demands attention—the social attitude of the farmer. In the early days of the development of the great Middle West agricultural districts, the pioneer farmer faced difficulties and actual physical danger that put the supreme tests. Thrown largely upon his own resources, isolated from his kind, the farmer developed a sturdy independence and self-sufficiency that, in the face of the obstacles nature put in his way and the perilous fights against Indians and wild animals, did not prevent his hearty coöperation with his neighbors. Together the farmers of the pioneer days tilled and reaped; fought their common enemies; and laughed and shouted at their barn-raising, log-rollings, spelling-bees, and singing-schools. As the country became cleared and settled and as the science of farming developed and new labor-saving machinery was invented, the farmer became

increasingly independent of his neighbors. The early tendency toward individualism was fostered and nurtured by the growing recognition of the importance of agriculture and the ease with which the farmer withdrew into himself once the pressure of necessity for working with others lessened. This spirit of individualism still persists, and is the greatest single factor in the way of the social welfare of rural communities.

Formerly, in the rural districts, the church was one of the most potent factors. It was often the only community center, drawing to it men, women, and children. To-day the question of maintaining the rural church is a serious one. Literally thousands of country churches have been abandoned. Many of those in the small villages and towns to which the country people have transferred their membership are maintained only by tremendous struggles and sacrifices. The country church as a rule (and often the village church) receives only from one-fourth to one-third of the minister's time. The salary is pitifully small. The pastor comes intermittently; interest lags; attendance is irregular; money for the support of the church is increasingly hard to get. No wonder that the few faithful give up the fight and the church is abandoned. Sometimes the cause lies in the lack of training and fitness of the preacher; sometimes in the competition between country and village churches; and often in the fact that too many churches of different denominations have at-

tempted to cover the field. Another cause may be found in the failure of the church itself to meet the needs of the people who have come to it seeking a satisfying life philosophy.

The church is just awakening to the necessity of giving the people not only inspiration for future salvation, but also the more practical present salvation and such an interpretation of life as will meet the daily trials and vexations of spirit. The different denominations are seriously considering this problem of the rural church. Many of them have established in their national organizations a department on rural life. The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, composed of thirty Protestant denominations, has a Commission on Church and Country Life.

Various solutions are offered. Rural surveys have been made in purely rural church parishes in the hope of arousing the community to action and to the support of the church. The suggestion has been offered that rural pastors understand agriculture in order that the church may promote agricultural or farmers' conferences and the pastor be able to advise regarding methods of farming. One of the favorite remedies offered is to make the church the social center of the community. This plan has been successful in some places. The consolidation or federation of small weak churches into a vigorous community church is a logical solution of the problem, and the different denominations are getting together in

friendly fashion to accomplish this task. In some states there is an effort to district the state and assign different territory to the different denominations in order further to promote the building up of strong, independent, and self-sustaining rural churches. The consolidated or federated churches for the most part are located in the town or village that serves as the natural center of the outlying rural district. With the consolidation of churches must come the recognition that the minister be well trained and adequately paid. A social vision on his part is much more necessary than a knowledge of farming. An honest consecration to the fundamental purpose of the church, the inspiration of spirituality, is absolutely essential.

In recent years the rural school has received increasing attention, and effort has been made to remedy its inadequacies. About one half of the children in the United States, twelve million of them, are enrolled in village and country schools; 212,000 schools are classed as one-room schools. The conditions of the one-room schoolhouses are notorious—wretched ventilation; disagreeable cross-lighting; outworn and old-fashioned desks; poor water supply; offensive toilets or none at all; barren or neglected school yard; disrepair of the building itself. These physical disadvantages are enough to constitute a menacing problem, but there must be added the more serious one of the inadequate teaching facilities. Rural teachers are often—not always—indifferently trained. Many

of them look upon teaching as a makeshift, and, since interest in their work is limited, they change schools frequently. As a consequence there is an instability in the service of the teacher, which reacts against the regular and consecutive attendance of the pupils.

The education provided in rural districts is scanty, although the need for it, as shown by the figures dealing with length of educational training and the amount of illiteracy, is tremendous. Foght says: "Recent educational surveys have disclosed that in certain states the level of school education must be measured by about six and one-half years of school attendance for villages and less than five years for the rural districts. Such limited education can not furnish the intelligent leadership required at this present time of entrance upon the new era of scientific agriculture. . . . There are in the United States between five and a half and six million illiterate adults, and more than one-half of these people live in rural sections where there are little or no school facilities."⁶

Constructive plans for meeting this problem of rural education and the rural school have been made and in many communities carried to successful completion. Rural school districts supporting one-room schools have been consolidated

⁶Foght, H. W., "Rural Education," Bulletin No. 7, United States Bureau of Education, 1919, pp. 3, 4. The federal census of 1920 reports 4,931,905 illiterates in this country.

into one large district supporting a modern well built and fully equipped grade school (and sometimes a high school), with a sufficient number of teachers and such a comprehensive curriculum that the school may be fully accredited. The specially planned rural school naturally becomes the social center of the community. Farmers' institutes, domestic science short courses, agricultural demonstrations, community-day celebrations, field-days, picnics, lectures, and commencement-day festivities bring the people together in a center which they themselves have bought and maintained. There were in 1918 about 10,500 consolidated schools in the United States. The new plan of building a "teacherage" for the residence of the principal or superintendent of the consolidated school, and his employment for a full year rather than for the school year, is meeting with much favor.

A statement of "Aims in Rural Education"⁷ is given here because of its pertinency:

1. An academic term of not less than 160 days in every rural community (8 school months).
2. A sufficient number of teachers adequately prepared for their work.
3. Consolidation of schools where practicable.
4. Teacher's home and demonstration farm of five or more acres as part of the school property.
5. An all-year school session adapted to local conditions.
6. A county library with branch libraries at centers of population, the public schools to be used as distributing centers.

⁷ *School Life*, February 1, 1919.

7. Community organization, with the school as the intellectual, industrial, and social center.
8. A high-school education for all country boys and girls without severing home ties in obtaining that education.
9. Such readjustment and reformation of courses of study in elementary and secondary rural schools as will adapt them to the needs of rural life.
10. The need for federal aid in public education.
11. The elimination of illiteracy.
12. The Americanization of all citizens through a better civic and patriotic instruction.

Since almost fifty per cent. of the population of the United States live in the rural districts, it is important to know under what conditions life is carried on. The most vital of human relationships are found in the home. Here the child is born and here are spent his early years, when he receives the impressions of people and the fundamental ideals of conduct and training that to a large degree make or mar his future. Rural surveys in widely separated areas of the country have given a fairly vivid picture of rural homes.

In the more prosperous farming districts the farm-house is commodious, usually painted white, surrounded by an attractive, well kept, and fenced lawn. There may be inviting shady porches, and within the house such modern comforts as electric lights, furnace, bath-room, inside toilet, and adequate water supply piped into the house. On the other hand, even in those townships where farming has been successful, there are houses only partially weather-boarded, unpainted, weather-beaten, without porches, and unscreened. As a rule the housing accommodations provided for the

tenant and farm laborer are of the poorest type.⁸ In some farm homes there is overcrowding—for example, six persons living in two rooms, seven in three rooms, eight in three rooms, nine in four small rooms, nine in three small rooms. These conditions exist not alone in the tenant houses. The farm-owner may and often does live in just such overcrowded quarters.

Farm-house yards are often neglected, sometimes grassed but uncared for, many times with no grass at all and used as a catch-all for worn-out machinery and discarded farm implements. The water supply is often obtained from springs, cisterns, or shallow-dug wells, and if so it may be easily contaminated by reason of primitive toilets or lack of any, or through the location of privies and stables nearer than one hundred feet and on higher ground than the well or cistern. The condition of the privies is sometimes shocking. Few are regularly disinfected or cleaned. They are often dilapidated, and many times are provided with no vault or pit. In some instances the contents are exposed to flies, fowls, and domestic animals.

In one rural township a survey discovered that the contents of privies were disposed of by six different methods. "In eight cases they were removed and buried; in one they were removed and

⁸Peirce, Paul S., "Social Surveys of Three Rural Townships in Iowa," University of Iowa Monographs, Studies in the Social Sciences, Vol. V, No. 2, 1917.

burned; in four they were used as a fertilizer; in three the privy was moved and the contents covered up where they lay; in one they rolled down a bank into a ditch below; and in six they were eaten by chickens and pigs which had free access." Some kind of toilet is considered a necessity⁷ for decency, yet many rural families have no toilet of any kind. A rural survey reports a family that had lived on a farm for fifty years and had never had a privy.

The neglected opportunities for beautifying the yards and houses of the farm dweller, the wretched housing accommodations provided tenants and farm laborers, the occasional overcrowding, the menace of contaminated water supply, and the lack of the most necessary sanitary conveniences make rather an appalling picture. On the other hand, there is the inspiration of pure sweet air, of vast stretches of field and hill, the ever-changing colors of the passing seasons, and a sense of personal freedom.

In the rural districts but little effort has been made to standardize the working-day, though here and there sporadic efforts have been made by farm laborers to restrict the number of hours. Some threshing-machine outfits enforce the eight-hour day. However, the farm-owner, spurred on by the uncertainty of the weather and urged by the necessity of garnering a good crop and the difficulty of securing help, often labors from ten to fifteen hours in summer and about ten hours in

winter, though work in the winter months is rather irregular. The long working-day leaves little time for recreation. While the hard physical work of the farm tends to develop physical fitness, the farmer needs mental and social stimulation to counteract the deadening effect of physical effort alone. Recreation for adults and play for children are essential for normal living. In addition, the children's play should be supervised to insure fairness and good moral conditions and to develop the social instincts of each child. On the farm recreation will depend largely on the facilities provided at home and the social contacts with neighbors. Besides, the recreational provisions of the near-by town or village will have a decided influence upon the farm dwellers, depending of course upon the frequency with which the town is visited and the use made of the facilities there provided.

In the rural districts, while the question of congestion is not particularly pertinent, the question of a definite play space is. The school yard, where the rural child's play is largely carried on, is often inadequate and rarely equipped or supervised. Furthermore, the need for the cultivation of a social spirit is just as important as in the city, perhaps even more so because of the rather individualistic tendency of the rural population. Besides, when the country child goes to the village with his parents on marketing, trading, or shipping days, or attends school and boards in

the town, he is largely without social opportunities. He sits in a store or convenient "loafing place," attends the "movies," saunters through the streets. He complicates the problems of play for the village or town child. The need for supervised and organized play exists for the rural and small-town child alike, to develop social contacts and an aggressive social spirit.

In the farm home there seems to be little recognition of the need for play equipment. Many rural homes do not provide so simple a thing as a rope swing for the children. Many families possess no musical instrument of any kind. Outside the home, hunting and fishing, socials, visiting, picnics, and the "movies" in the adjacent town serve as the most popular forms of recreation. Weekly papers and standard magazines are frequently popular in the farm homes, and many families are interested in Chautauquas, farmers' institutes, and county or state fairs when these are available. Dances are sometimes looked upon with disfavor. The prejudice against them is often due to religious feeling and sentiment.

Too frequently in the rural community there is an attitude of indifference and even of repression toward recreation. Its importance is not generally recognized, and on all sides there is evidence of the failure to grasp the significance of the problem of recreation as it affects the children and the young men and women. Rarely is there found a central gathering-place or a neigh-

borhood or community plan for providing recreation for adults and children. Occasionally a church or a school in a rural community is utilized as a social center; but as a rule the success of this venture depends, not upon the leadership of local residents, but upon the minister or the teacher who has initiated the movement, and, as a consequence, it is apt to disintegrate when that minister or teacher leaves the community. The problem resolves itself into that of building up such a community spirit as will express itself in some form of community organization developed and financed by the people themselves and under the direction of local leaders. Only as such a plan is adopted will the individualism and even suspicion of people give way in the rural mind to a sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the community and an active participation in any social effort that seems to meet a local need.

CHAPTER II

THE SOCIAL SURVEY

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

COMMUNITIES are as individual as people. They differ in history, social composition, economic and industrial institutions, and welfare agencies. Any intelligent plan for community betterment must be based upon exact knowledge of local social problems and resources. Like many other words and phrases used in social service, *social problems* and *social resources* are not always clearly defined and their meaning is taken more or less for granted. Nevertheless, the content given reveals the worker's attitude of mind and something of his social philosophy.

Ellwood says that social problems may be summed up as one—the problem of the relations of men to one another; in other words, the problem of human living together.⁹ Whenever and wherever two people come in contact, conflicts of desires, of interests, and of opinions are the inevitable outcome. The results of these conflicts between individuals and between groups of men, multiplied beyond computation through the years

⁹ Ellwood, Charles A., "The Social Problem."

of humanity's history, are to be seen in the present conditions under which men live. These results have been determined by the adjustment of the conflicts, and that adjustment has depended upon the social, economic, and ideal values possessed by the individual or the group. Civilization, Ellwood states, is at bottom the creation and transmission of ideal values by which men regulate their conduct. This statement brings the discussion squarely to a consideration of the kind of ideal values that have dominated and so produced present living conditions.

As society has developed from small independent groups through combination and consolidation to the state, a corresponding change has taken place in the character of the struggle for existence. Physical or brute strength was the first element of characterization, and was particularly true of primitive man. His fight was against nature and against animal forces. As he slowly conquered them, driven by the intensity of the conflict, he formed a coalition with a neighboring tribe. His awakening intelligence recognized that order, law, and control of the individual made for efficiency. While coöperation was compulsory, the *ability to coöperate* was developed. Unfortunately, along with the desirable features, dictatorship was bred. One man or a few men controlled not only the means of livelihood but also the very lives of other men. Power, dominion, possessions, were the accepted ideal values.

The lack of appreciation of man's obligation to man and of men's mutual dependence and responsibility for the common welfare became the foundation for modern social problems. These problems can be solved only as the ideal values of honesty, of individual responsibility, of obligation to every member of the community, are generally adopted. Mangold touches the quick of the matter: "Social reform depends on the limitation of individual rights and the subordination of the individual to the group of the community. . . . Furthermore, it is necessary to teach the lesson that the interests of all are greater than the selfish interests of the few."¹⁰ Social conditions are the objective outcome of the ideals of men, their standards of value. Only as these ideals change will the social conditions be permanently reconstructed.

The *social problem*, then, may be defined as a lack of adjustment of individual to individual or of the individual to his environment, physical, industrial, or social. Concretely, social problems include such conditions as poverty, neglected homes, delinquency and crime, inadequate sanitation, corrupt government, low wages, unemployment, insufficient educational and recreational facilities. *Social resources* are available means for solving social problems or for overcoming them. These resources may not have been properly cultivated; they may be inadequate; they may be misdirected and their uses perverted; but, neverthe-

¹⁰ Mangold, George B., "Problems of Child Welfare," p. 490.

less, they do represent possibilities. They consist largely of the laws, customs, traditions, social institutions, agencies, and organizations that have grown out of some conception of a social need. They vary with the community and state, and their use and influence will depend upon the presence or absence of an active community spirit.

Since every community is confronted with some unsolved social problems, the thoughtful citizen questions how all the people of the community may be brought together into a self-conscious working unit. As a matter of fact, community organization is one of the biggest problems of the day. Nothing of permanent value can be accomplished without it. Any constructive program must have some operative machinery for its practical details. Organization is necessary for adequately carrying on the daily task; for educating the people; for securing economical administration by eliminating unnecessary overhead expenses; for preventing duplication and for obtaining the greatest return for the money invested. Community organization is the coördination of all the community resources for the solving of community problems.

Hart gives an inspiring explanation of community organization when he says: "The task of community organization involves the development of a social order inclusive enough, rich enough, varied enough, stimulating enough to reach every normal human being; to transform all our com-

mon social institutions into instruments of service and to compete with all lesser elements for the loyalty and support of the individual." ¹¹

Sanderson conceives community organization to be "that integration of the social forces of a community which will insure its unified action in the chief concerns of its life and will make possible a progressive realization and attainment of its highest values. This will doubtless ultimately require some adequate mechanism through which the will of the community may be expressed; but the essential thing in community organization is to secure a sense of devotion to the community good, a community consciousness. . . . The mechanisms of community organization are still too new for any of us to form any safe judgment as to their relative worth, but whatever their form it is essential that there be some sort of central community agency (the ancient council of the elders?) which is representative of all interests, has the confidence and support of all elements, and which can direct the thinking, ascertain the purposes, and carry out the will of the community." ¹²

The final purpose of organization is to direct community feeling to build up as nearly as possible an ideal community. It is a recognition of the responsibility of the community for conditions "which conduce to the health, morality, happiness,

¹¹ Hart, Joseph K., "Community Organization," p. 50.

¹² Sanderson, Dwight L., "Democracy and Community Organization," in "The Problem of Democracy," publication of the American Sociological Society, Vol. XIV, pp. 89, 90.

and general good citizenship of all the people.” The elements that go to make an ideal community include a satisfying social life, wholesome recreation for every man, woman, and child, regular employment with income sufficient for a high standard of family life, modern school system, virile civic and moral life, strong active churches, and a clean, beautiful environment. The question that interests every alert citizen is, “How nearly does my community conform to the standards of an ideal community? What are its advantages and what are its disadvantages?” The answers to these questions, which will give the foundation for a wise plan of community development, may be secured through what is known as a *social survey* or a *community study*.

THE SOCIAL SURVEY

A social survey is a “stock-taking of social factors that determine the conditions of a given community, . . . with a view to providing adequate information necessary for the intelligent planning and carrying out of constructive and far-reaching social reforms.”¹³ It is an inquiry into social problems and social resources and the relationship between them. It questions whether the social facilities are adequate; whether they are correlated with each other and offer amelioration; or whether, lacking coördination, they offer one more problem to the social engineer.

¹³ Aronovici, Carol, “The Social Survey,” p. 5.

The most effective survey includes the following four steps: (1) gathering data; (2) outlining a community plan and program based on an interpretation of data secured; (3) conducting a publicity campaign to arouse community spirit; (4) securing the adoption of the plan for community organization.

The initial step of the survey is the gathering of facts. Data must be accurate, and must be obtained without bias or prejudice. The survey should reveal both the good and the bad social conditions. However, effort should be made not to present such an overwhelming variety of facts that the townspeople are confused or startled out of sympathy with the survey. As a result of the survey the community should be able to see itself intelligently and honestly, and should understand the difficulties in the way of higher standards of community life. On this basis the survey should reach the second stage—the outlining of a community plan or program.

Efficient community organization has as its primary aim the control of community conditions, which form the environment of the individual and which may adversely restrict or limit his individual development. Through this control and the consequent correction of the disadvantageous conditions, the community can make it increasingly possible for every individual to enjoy the greatest social and economic opportunities. The removal of handicaps from the individual will

free him to reach the maximum development of his innate powers, and will in turn raise the social standards of the group.

Unless the surveyor supplements the collection of data with a suggested form of community organization, the survey has not accomplished its purpose or its possibilities: it is unfinished. However, the impetus for organization must come from within, as the result of a conviction that the community has social problems that it must solve. The plan presenting the methods of procedure must be simple, explicit, and concrete; must fit local needs; must inspire coöperation; must co-ordinate existing social resources; must outline feasible combinations of functions; and must include a budget large enough to provide for trained executives.

After the data have been analyzed and the course of action mapped out, the third step—the publicity campaign—should follow. It may include a formal exhibit. The exhibit will furnish opportunity for the presentation of the data in attractive and unusual epigram, charts, spot maps, diagrams, models, lectures, conferences, and demonstrations. Addresses, newspapers, letters, pamphlets, and circulars will offer other methods of advertisement.

The last step of the survey, which is the adoption of the plan, depends upon the local community; but the preliminary work must be done by the social engineer. He must have secured for

the community program the enthusiastic support of all agencies, public and private, of leading citizens, of clubs, lodges, churches, and business men. His success will be measured by the degree to which preconceived notions, long cherished but impossible schemes, old social feuds, and attempted monopolies of social welfare agencies are given up and all effort merged in one coöperative plan.

TYPES OF SURVEYS

Surveys differ greatly in purpose and method. Until very recently the survey was regarded as complete when all possible data had been compiled. Rarely is a survey now made that does not include a draft of suggestions for solving the most obvious problems. Only a few of the more daring surveyors have undertaken to develop actual community organization as the survey neared completion. Such a policy is undoubtedly very effective as well as very difficult. It demands the greatest degree of finesse. It is no slight task to bring into harmony a great diversity of opinions and secure for a new form of organization the hearty support of a variety of local agencies. The secret of success lies in the ability of the surveyor to work in such close harmony and coöperation with the central survey committee that the plan takes shape naturally and as the inevitable result of the cumulative evidence that the survey discloses.

Surveys may be classified according to content,

the following classification having been suggested by Kellogg's article, "The Spread of the Survey Idea."

1. *The general survey*, which represents a cursory review of the community resources and problems, and which may be made either by the local community or by an outside agency. The Men and Religion Forward Movement made this type of survey in various cities of the United States several years ago.

2. *The comprehensive, interlocking survey*, which is a very detailed and analytical study of the entire social, economic, industrial, and political structure. It requires experts in the various fields and is an expensive undertaking. The Pittsburgh survey made in 1907 under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation was the first and most striking example of this type. The Russell Sage Foundation has made similar surveys in other cities. The Springfield, Illinois, survey (1913) is perhaps the most comprehensive survey up to this time, and has set a high standard in effectiveness of organization to conduct the survey and in the practical results obtained.

3. *The unit survey*, which may be a careful study of a given neighborhood or a city block, or which may be concerned with the most obvious local problem. In either case, the individual study should be related to the community as a whole and to the different phases of city welfare.

4. *The informal survey*, which is a quick review

and summing up of a local situation. It is usually made by an outside expert brought in for the purpose. It may be followed by a comprehensive survey or by a unit survey.

5. *The continuous survey*, sometimes called *the permanent survey*, which is carried on by a local association, such as an endowed institution or a centralized agency supported by private subscriptions or by public and private funds. In the Middle West are to be found strong centralized public welfare bureaus which are giving to the public yearly reviews of the status of community welfare, of its progress in the foregoing year, and, on the basis of actual facts, are pointing out needed reforms.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

There is one infallible rule for every survey. To be successful it must come from the people. Its success will be measured, not by the amount of data unearthed, but by the spontaneity of the citizens in adopting the program growing out of the survey and putting it into operation. Consequently the people must feel that the survey belongs to them, that it is their project, and that it is a vital and pressing need.

In the promotion of a survey there are two phases to the method of procedure: (1) the method to be used in getting the need for the survey before the people and enlisting their interest and support, and (2) the method or plan of initiating the survey itself—that is, of organizing

the community to facilitate the accumulation of data, to secure wise publicity, and to maintain complete coöperation of all local groups. The initial organization is very important, since it will serve as a basis or nucleus for the permanent association that should result.

The first phase, namely, "selling" the survey to the community, arousing enthusiasm for it, may be developed in numerous ways. It must be assumed that some one person or group of persons desires the survey; otherwise there would be no point of attack. Procedure may be along any one of the following suggested modes of operation:

1. The individual or group may spread the idea by talking with acquaintances and friends. A canvass of all clubs, churches, officials, business men, and welfare agencies may follow, after which a convincing mass-meeting should be held. Such an effort may lead to the importing of a surveyor or to the undertaking of a survey by the citizens themselves. If the latter plan is followed, expert advice and direction should always be secured.

2. A small group may gather certain suggestive data to be used for publicity material. This plan was adopted with excellent results in a town of about 7000 people. The idea of a survey spread like wildfire, the Extension Division of the local State University was invited to make the survey, and as a result a welfare or social service bureau was organized with a trained social worker as its executive.

The preliminary data collected by the voluntary committee were embodied in a circular and also printed in the local newspaper. The contents of the circular follow:

THE PROPOSED SOCIAL SURVEY

A. Brief Statement of Facts

What we propose to do.

- I. Strengthen and coördinate the work of all present agencies.
- II. Unify the work of all charitable agencies, such as churches, lodges, individuals, and the county work in the city.
 1. To avoid duplication.
 2. To secure proper balance among families.
 3. To insure thorough and confidential investigations, to punish the fraudulent, to respond to the genuine, and to encourage the timid.
- III. Aid the County Board of Supervisors in administering the county fund for the relief of the poor.
- IV. Determine whether or not there is a possibility of decreasing the tax burden.
- V. Make social work a city-wide responsibility and not leave the matter to a few individuals.
- VI. Secure an immediate survey of the city's social conditions, know the truth and use it.
- VII. Keep a confidential classified card-index record of all persons and families aided, and of all needs.
- VIII. Give aid when needed and where needed.
- IX. Educate needy families in the principles of ventilation, spending, and saving.
- X. Insist upon better care of homes. Prevent sickness through education and sanitary measures. Protect the community by better care of the sick and the dependent.
- XI. Employ a competent trained social worker responsible to a committee of sixteen representative citizens.
- XII. Raise the necessary budget for administration of the above program.

B. Some Present Conditions

- I. At this time there are *twenty* families who need the assistance of some competent person to direct expenditures, improve housing, instruct in living conditions. All of these families have had severe sickness; one, a death. All have from two to five children each, one half of whom are in school.

LIVING CONDITIONS OF SOME OF THESE TWENTY FAMILIES

- Family A. Lives in one room; windows nailed down; rags stuffed in cracks.
Family B. Five people who live in a basement room.
Family C. Five people living in one room upstairs. Mother takes in washing.
Family D. Three rooms; telephone, graphophone, county aid.
Family E. Five children, father, and mother in two small, poorly ventilated rooms.
Family F. Nine people in two small rooms; poorly furnished and with almost no ventilation.
Family G. Five small children, anemic, uncared for; mother sick, and even when well a poor manager; father shiftless.
Family H. Nine children, father, and mother living in two rooms; father's earnings inadequate for family needs; family aided in haphazard way, so it is either a feast or a famine.
All of these families have had sickness a great deal of the time. All the homes are poorly managed, and in all of the homes there are children of school age.

- II. Other social conditions demanding the community's attention.
1. Youngsters of both sexes loitering in the entrances and shadows of the schools and churches late at night.
 2. Young girls, without escorts, meeting evening trains, though they have no friends coming or going on trains.
 3. Young couples visiting for long periods in public halls and stairways.

The survey will tell us more about our town and show us how to get together to solve our problems.

Without doubt this circular may be criticized, but it is at least a most interesting illustration of what may be done by a few people when once aroused to the necessities of the local situation.

A small earnest group might bring together data concerning both the relative advantages and disadvantages of the town, resources and deficiencies or needs, and put them in the form of two charts to be placed side by side; or a diagram or graphic drawing might be made to show the present town and the ideal town it might be made. The members of the group might each act as a publicity agent for the survey and educate every one encountered. Then the group might call a meeting of representatives from all organizations to consider a survey, or it might have small group meetings of different clubs, the clergy, newspaper owners or editors, of school officials and teachers, of physicians and dentists, of business men, and of county and town officials. Finally, at a mass-meeting, it might be voted to have a survey.

3. Instead of the small group gleaning a few facts with which to drive home the need for a survey, this interested group might invite an expert surveyor to review the community briefly and at a mass-meeting to point out one or two of the most salient problems. A more detailed and comprehensive survey might then be made under the auspices of the community itself.

4. A fourth method is represented by a town of 5000 people where churches, lodges, clubs, labor

organizations, city and county officials, and the commercial club were each asked to send representatives to a special meeting. An expert surveyor had been invited to explain what a survey is, what it may be expected to accomplish, and how it may be conducted. After the address there was an open discussion, and a motion was passed that it was the sense of the meeting that the town should have a survey. A committee of three was elected to have the matter in charge. The representatives present were instructed to report the action taken to their respective organizations, to urge a vote of coöperation, and after such a vote to report the result to the central committee. It was decided that the survey should be made only if all agencies agreed to support it.

5. The survey may be promoted by a business men's association. This fact may be illustrated by a very interesting development that occurred in a town of about 22,000. The minister of one of the churches, who had always taken a prominent part in all the social welfare activities of the city, felt that the social energy being expended was dissipated and not focused as it might be upon the city's problems. He was convinced that if all the citizens knew the facts concerted action would result. At first he presented the matter to the ministerial association, and was delegated to interview the commercial club. The commercial club was immediately interested, called a meeting of its members, secured a speaker, and at this

meeting voted to have a survey. The minister, who was a member, was made chairman of the survey committee of three, the other two being business men. After the commercial club assumed responsibility, the ministerial association dropped into the background, none the less interested, but convinced that the survey would accomplish more if it was not regarded as the project of the religious group of the city.

6. The survey may be made at the request of public officials. In a town of 5000 people, located in a prosperous agricultural county of 20,000, several of the leading citizens made a quiet investigation of county expenditures. To their surprise they discovered that their town, comprising one-fourth the population of the county, was expending for poor relief four times the amount spent in all the rest of the county, and that this condition existed in spite of the fact that their community was a college town, which had congratulated itself that it had no poverty. These citizens discussed the situation with the county board of supervisors, with the result that the supervisors employed the writer to make a survey of the situation and to report a plan for lessening the abnormal expenditure.

In a city of 50,000 an informal survey was made under the auspices of the commercial club. This brief study revealed a lack of adequate county records, superficial investigations of applicants for county aid, and much overlapping of work by

public and private agencies caring for dependent families and for neglected and dependent children. These facts induced the county supervisors to employ a trained investigator for a period of six months to make a more comprehensive survey.

In another city a small but influential women's club held an open meeting and secured an address on the possibilities of community organization for the constructive care of dependent and poverty-stricken families. The members of this club had been doing volunteer social work, and had come to the conclusion that the social work of the city was being done in a haphazard fashion or was not being done at all. This club decided to finance a survey, but the surveyor invited to do the work refused to consider it until the city as a whole was ready to coöperate. Almost a year elapsed before the surveyor undertook the task. In the meantime the club had been interviewing the business men, the city and county officials, and the Mission, which was the largest private relief and social agency in the city. As a result of this persistent and enthusiastic effort, the commercial club, the Board of Supervisors, and the Mission asked for a survey, and the Board of Supervisors agreed to pay all the expenses.

From this discussion of the first phase of the method of procedure, namely the winning of the community's coöperation and support, two conclusions may be drawn: (1) that all the diverse elements of the community must give assurance of

their willingness to share responsibility for the survey and (2), that this responsibility must be concentrated in a central or survey committee. The latter conclusion leads directly to a consideration of the second phase of the method of procedure—the organization of the community for the conduct of the survey.

The form of organization will depend upon the type of survey to be initiated, that is, upon the thoroughness of the inquiry, the number of experts requisitioned, the variety of problems investigated, and therefore upon the expense involved.

The expense will vary greatly. Surveys may be made by the people themselves, though in this case advice must be sought from some expert in order that the survey may be adequate. If the work is done by local volunteers the expenses will consist only of the printing of forms or schedules for the tabulation of data, of stationery and postage for announcements and correspondence, of any printed publicity other than local newspapers, and for the salary and expenses of the expert surveyor who should by all means be brought to the community for a personal consultation. In a number of states, Kansas, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, the state universities, generally through the Extension Division, will make local surveys upon request. The expense in such cases is nominal, since the salaries are paid by the state. The community is usually expected to pay the

traveling expenses and provide entertainment for the Extension workers.

There are a number of independent organizations that make surveys upon invitation, notably the Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation, Community Service Incorporated, the National Child Labor Committee, and the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, all of New York City. The rural life departments of various churches have also conducted surveys, sometimes on request and sometimes on their own initiative. The Children's Bureau of the United States has done some unusually excellent work in its surveys of the conditions of child life in different parts of the country. In some sections of the country the American Red Cross has made community studies; but its community study service has been discontinued and the only surveys now made are brief studies made through the field service at the request of the local chapter to determine the best program of work for the chapter.

If a preliminary survey is followed by a comprehensive one and expert workers are employed, the community will be obligated to pay the salaries, which will vary from one hundred and fifty to three hundred dollars a month per worker. Besides, the community will be expected to meet the bills for all printing and publicity expense. The length of time needed to complete the survey will vary from two weeks for a superficial study,

six weeks to two months for a more detailed survey, to a year for a comprehensive survey. In some small communities, especially where committees of volunteers are gathering the data, the survey may be made to cover the period of a year. A monthly program may be outlined, dealing with the various subjects to be considered. Lectures, entertainments, stereopticon and motion pictures, and special reports may serve to arouse and hold the interest of the people. The year's program and the survey may be concluded with a community institute lasting a few days or a week. During this time lectures based upon the findings serve to emphasize the community's needs and the possibilities of the community program. Clinics may be conducted, together with child welfare conferences and round-table discussions.

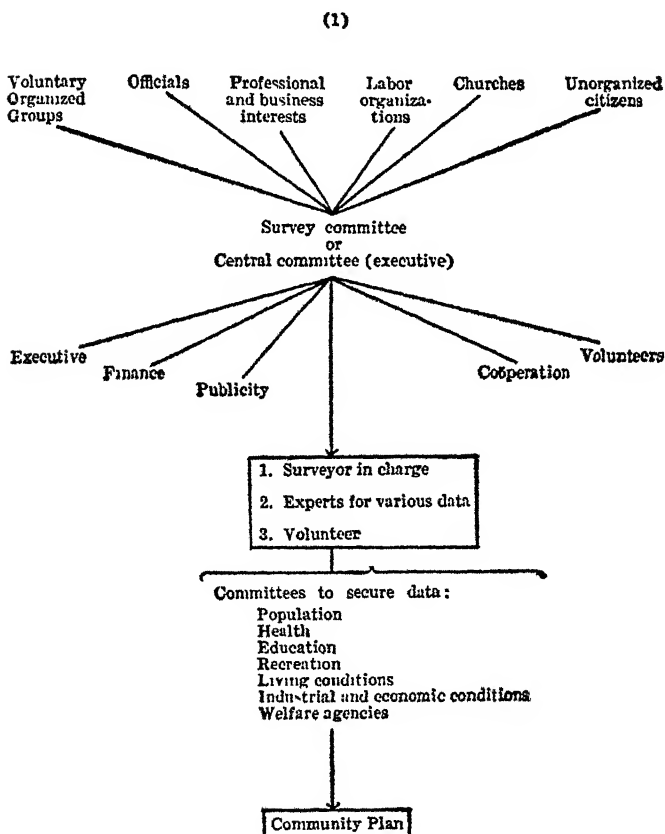
ORGANIZATION FOR THE SURVEY

Two plans for a working organization may be suggested. One is rather elaborate; the other very simple. The community may find practical some variation of these two outlines, which are necessarily only suggestive. It must never be forgotten that in making surveys, as in every other kind of social service, no hard-and-fast rules can be laid down, but that procedure must be adjusted to local conditions.

1. The more complex form of organization is presented in the diagram on page 57. The survey committee should be representative of the various

local interests. This central committee may be chosen from the membership of the organization financing the survey, such as a business men's club; or it may be chosen at the mass-meeting at which the survey project is considered; or it may

DIAGRAM OF PLAN OF ORGANIZATION OF SURVEY



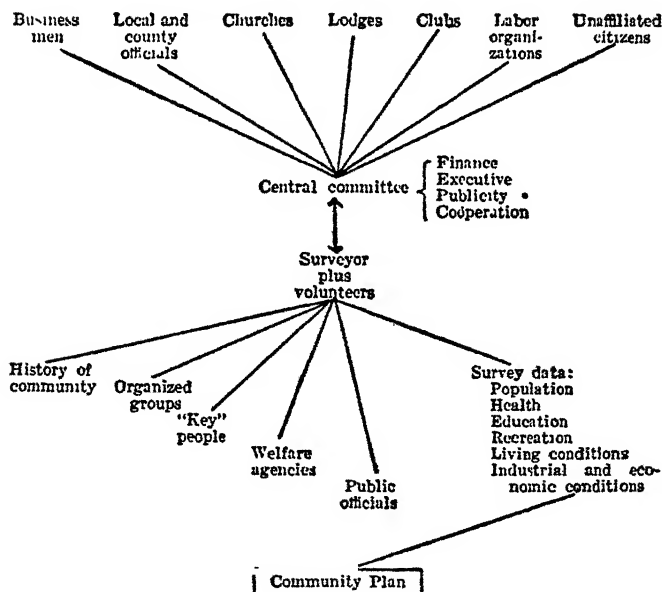
be composed of members elected to it by the different participating agencies. The number may vary from five to fifteen. Ordinarily it should not be larger than fifteen. There should be a small executive committee of three, chosen from the membership of the central committee, which should be conversant with the work and progress of each sub-committee and which should direct that work as need arises. The executive committee may have charge of the finances, or there may be a separate finance committee. The money may be secured through private subscriptions or through some one organization or furnished by the agencies jointly. Usually the sub-committee on publicity should not have as its chairman a newspaper editor, but the chairman must appreciate the necessity for publicity because of its educational and advertising possibilities. Two other sub-committees are necessary, one on coöperation and the other on volunteers. The first should make certain that no society or group is uninformed about the survey, but that each is kept interested; the second should secure for the aid of the surveyor as many volunteers as are desired. Working with the surveyor should be small committees to help uncover sources of data, to collect data, and to help in their tabulation. If there are experts for different types of data, each of these small committees should have an expert as director. These committees should include such subjects as Population, Health, Education,

Recreation, Living or Home Conditions, Industrial and Economic Conditions, and Welfare Agencies.

2. The simple form of organization shown in

DIAGRAM OF PLAN OF ORGANIZATION OF SURVEY

(3)



the diagram above consists of a central committee of from three to seven, chosen from the membership of the agency or agencies promoting the survey, or perhaps made up of a business or professional man, a local official, and a repre-

sentative woman. The surveyor should work with this central committee in getting a grasp of the local situation, in meeting "key" people, in obtaining an appreciation of local prejudices and cliques, and in enlarging the community's understanding of the survey and its spirit. In addition the surveyor should make use of all possible volunteers. Under this second form of organization the survey is usually in the hands of one expert, who, with the help of the central committee and a few volunteers, endeavors to cover the field to be surveyed.

To be successful—that is, to maintain the sympathy of the community and to prevent disastrous antagonisms—the surveyor must observe the following rules, which are offered very tentatively and must not be taken as complete guides. The tactfulness and genuine courtesy of the surveyor will smooth away many seeming obstacles and overcome latent opposition.

A. *With relation to the community:*

It must be made clear that the spirit of the survey is helpful and not meanly critical or harsh.

The purpose of the survey must never be permitted to become obscure—the ultimate betterment of conditions in the community, not the mere accumulation of facts.

Every member of the community must feel that confidences given are held inviolable.

B. *With relation to the central committee:*

The central committee must be informed of each new development and of every important finding as the survey progresses.

The central committee must never be permitted to forget that it is the responsible agent for the survey; the surveyor must not assume any undue authority; the central committee must make the decisions in consultation with the surveyor. Such a policy simplifies the formulation of the plan for community organization.

C. *With relation to volunteers:*

As many volunteers should be enlisted as can be advantageously employed. It must be kept in mind that every volunteer is a publicity agent for the survey.

Simple, definite, and concise instructions must be given volunteers, so that they understand what they are to do.

Schedules or forms for the collection of data must be clear and not complicated.

Volunteers must understand each point of the schedule and its significance for the entire survey.

They must be impressed with the necessity of carrying their work to completion.

They must not be given so much to do or such complex work that they become discouraged and withdraw their services.

The surveyor must be in constant touch with the volunteers to insure their filling out completely the schedules and to check the data they secure.

D. *With relation to the survey and himself:*

Data must be accurate.

The surveyor must know the *exact* wording of laws and ordinances. Hearsay evidence must not be taken as conclusive; it must be verified.

Hasty publicity must be guarded against. Conclusions should be held in abeyance until all data have been garnered.

The surveyor should not be too ready to criticize, but must not be blind to defects.

Snap judgments should be avoided. The rules of logic should be unfailingly applied.

The surveyor must be sympathetic and appreciative of all the social welfare efforts that have been made, and should remember that every social agency is the result of an effort to satisfy some social need. It is true that the effort may have been inadequate or abortive, but the fact remains that it was made.

The surveyor must not assume to know everything. A modicum of modesty is at least becoming.

As is true of all social workers, that surveyor will be most successful who is enthusi-

astic, interested, sympathetic, cordial, and resourceful. Ill humor and irritability can not compete with a friendly smile and a warm nod of understanding.

THE PUBLICITY CAMPAIGN

That there are social problems in every community, small or large, is unquestionable. Some people are wide-awake and fully aware of them. In this group there will be active and passive individuals, all thinkers but not all doers. Another group may realize that conditions are not ideal, but do not know just where the trouble lies. Still another group, through ignorance or indifference, is unconcerned. The social engineer must work with all three groups. The individuals who constitute the first group will form the nucleus of the working organization of the survey, since their civic pride and sense of social responsibility will spur them to active participation in its development. The secret of success lies in the ability of the surveyor, together with the most enlightened citizens, to inform the community generally of the nature and purpose of the survey, and to give as many people as possible something definite to do, so that the survey is felt to belong to the people and is not regarded as an extraneous thing, an impertinent inquiry made to satisfy the curiosity of an outsider.

An appeal may be made to local community pride: for example, the statement made in a letter

sent out by the Child Welfare Survey Committee at Manhattan, Kansas: "The State Board of Health is finding out the conditions that prevail in all the counties of the state for the welfare of children. This committee has been appointed to learn these conditions for Riley County and to report to the State Board of Health. We believe that conditions in this county are the best of any county in the state, and wish to demonstrate that fact by a complete survey."

Some publicity is necessary, both preceding the survey and during its progress as well as following its completion, in order to make clear its spirit and possibilities for effecting community organization. Furthermore, its promoters should talk "survey" to every friend and acquaintance, should present its necessity to all organizations, officials, and business men. It is essential that the business men be actively interested, since the adoption of the community plan growing out of the survey will depend very largely upon their financial support. There is one very telling argument that may be used. Either through taxes or voluntary contributions to various private charities, business men pay for inadequate sanitation, bad housing, unwise charity, neglected children. A constructive community program based on actual conditions, designed to solve the problems and to prevent their recurrence, always appeals to the far-seeing business man. Besides, he understands that better social conditions result in fewer

dependent families and reduce the number of delinquents, thereby raising the tone of the entire community. Naturally, he is vitally interested in the welfare of his home city and desirous of making it the best possible place in which to bring up his children.

Personal interviews with "key" people should initiate the publicity campaign. In addition, the interest of welfare agencies and the public officials should be enlisted. News articles should be regularly furnished the newspapers, which are always most generous in finding room for them. A good plan is to have a certain space in the paper devoted to the survey, in which may appear interesting comments on its scope, its spirit, results attained in other communities of about the same size, summaries of important social legislation, simple analyses of familiar technical phrases of the social worker, such as dependent, needy, or disadvantaged family, family treatment, constructive family plan; a definition of social work; and briefly explained figures relating to expenditure of community, county, and state funds for poor relief, care of dependents, and conduct of institutions.

Throughout the progress of the survey great care must be taken in handling publicity. Data must not be given out hastily or prematurely, especially since later data may radically change the seeming importance and significance of facts secured earlier. As rapidly as collected, informa-

tion should be reported to the executive committee, but should be largely withheld from the public until the study is complete and the plan formulated. The data may then be used with telling force to fortify the conclusions presented in the report. It is often possible to secure open meetings of lodges, and not at all difficult for the executive committee to secure for the surveyor opportunities to speak in churches and before various clubs. Sometimes it is advisable to call meetings of representatives of different associations for some special purpose, for example, to enlist their aid in securing some data difficult to obtain.

As the survey approaches completion and the plan takes shape, a date should be set for a public mass-meeting, at which the findings may be given. Just before this day arrives, it is well to have meetings of the executive committee and boards of welfare agencies or of county supervisors, especially if the plan involves either their professional or financial coöperation. Such conferences make it possible to report at the mass-meeting the attitude of these agencies.

Letters, notes of invitation, posters, newspaper notices, and widespread announcement should herald the approach of the mass-meeting, which should be held in a public building, auditorium, court-house, city hall, commercial club, or school-house, preferably not in a church.

Before the plans for the mass-meeting are com-

pleted, the survey committee should decide whether or not an exhibit shall be prepared and thrown open to the public at the time of the mass-meeting. If an affirmative decision is reached, an exhibit committee should be appointed to work with the surveyor and make use of the material as it is compiled. Publicity for the exhibit can then be added to that for the mass-meeting.

THE EXHIBIT

The exhibit may consist of charts and graphic diagrams showing sanitary and housing conditions; density of population by blocks; extent of dependency and delinquency; and expenditures of various funds for care of the community's wards. Spot maps may be made showing the location of recreation centers and of different nationalities. Photographs serve as telling illustrations and evidences of local conditions. A chart should deal with one item only. Lettering must be clear and must not be crowded, but so arranged that it is attractive and easily read. Slogans, striking pictures, and facts put simply so that they are quickly grasped will make the exhibit interesting. Related subjects should be grouped together. Some one should always be in attendance to explain the exhibit. Stereopticon slides, moving pictures, tableaux, conferences, and demonstrations at stated times will increase the popularity of the exhibit.

White holland-cloth and composition-board are excellent materials on which to make charts. The

facts and epigrams may be printed or painted by a sign-painter. The maps may be the ordinary printed maps, mounted on cardboard or light wood and framed. Colored tacks or pins may be used to differentiate data; the explanatory legend should be neatly printed and tacked in one corner. Outline maps of the community or of different blocks may be made, and a set of symbols used to indicate different social facts. The outline of symbols given here is taken from the pamphlet "The Collection of Social Survey Material" by Florence Rising Curtis. It may be varied or added to as the case requires.¹⁴

























The exhibit should be located on a first floor and on one of the principal business streets. The windows should be made inviting with colored charts, pictures, and well-phrased slogans. The success of the exhibit will be measured not only by the number of visitors in attendance but also by the degree of their interest.

The increasing popularity of the pageant has suggested its use upon the completion of the survey to present in song and pantomime the history and civic conditions of the community and the future with its comprehensive plan for the welfare of every member of the community family.

At the mass-meeting the report presented should be short, concrete, readable in form, and in such shape that it can be given to the news-

¹⁴In the appendix will be found an outline of symbols used by the students of the Missouri School of Social Economy in making maps of block studies.

Symbols

	Institution, public building, factory, store, etc. To be numbered to correspond with numerical key
	Large well kept dwelling-house
	Small comfortable dwelling-house
	Dwelling-house in poor condition
	Church To be numbered to correspond with numerical key
	School To be numbered to correspond with numerical key
	Hospital
	Motion-picture theater
	Saloon
	Cemetery
	Park
	Vacant lot or field
	Woods
	Pond
	Bluff or cliff
	City, village, or borough line
	Street
	Paved street
	Canal
	Steam railroad
	Electric railroad
	Bridge
	Dam
	Ferry

papers for publication in its entirety.¹⁵ Its conclusions must be simple and consist only of logical deductions from the data. There will be two parts of the report, one dealing with social facts and statistics, care being taken that long statements of figures are excluded and only their significance given; and the other outlining the community plan.

THE COMMUNITY PLAN

Community organization includes not only the development of centralized administrative machinery through which the social resources may be utilized, but also the creation of a community program that will help solve the social problems. The community plan must seek not only to remedy present evils, but to be preventive for the future. It should bring together different groups of people with varying ideas for a common purpose. It must consider the interests of all groups. It must be of such character that its usefulness will grow with the years. It must not be narrow in its policies and must have within itself the power of expansion and unfoldment. It must not be borrowed from some other community, but must be indigenous.

Any complete community plan must make provision for three functions; administrative, promotional, and supervisory or advisory (the last is

¹⁵ A detailed statistical report is, of course, given to the committee.

OUTLINE PLAN OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

CITIZENS

LOCAL TOWN
MACHINERY

COUNTY POLITICAL
MACHINERY

SCHOOLS

CHURCHES

COMMERCIAL
CLUB

VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS

Lodges
Clubs
Grange

COMMUNITY LEAGUE
(Central and Representative Social Agency)

FUNCTIONS

COMMERCIAL CLUB
To promote economic and industrial welfare
Members: farmers and local business men
To cooperate in development of social welfare projects

I. ADMINISTRATIVE
Trained staff
a. Social worker
b. Public health nurse
c. Child welfare expert
Organization of local charities
Local social surveys

II. PROMOTIONAL
Consideration of local needs and promotion of needed projects
Development of cooperative relations of allied agencies.
Stimulation of sustained interest in local social activities
Promotion of legislation

III. SUPERVISORY AND ADVISORY
Investigation
Supervision
Recommendations for improvement

CIVICS

Study of local government
Cooperation with United States and state
Arousing interest in local conditions
Bautification campaigns
Clean-up days
Pageants
Gardens

EMPLOYMENT

Social centers
Parks
Playgrounds
Community celebrations

RECREATION

Relief
a. Public
b. Private
Social treatment
American Red Cross

FAMILY WELFARE

Juvenile Court
Truancy
Child-placing
Education
Public Library

CHILD WELFARE

Public Health
Visiting nurses
Housing
Sanitation
Clinics
Baby and child welfare campaigns
Hospitals

LEGISLATION

Health
Child Welfare
Recreation

LOCAL INSTITUTIONS

Orphanages
Almshouse
Boarding- and lodging-houses
Commercialized recreations

possible only when statute or ordinance gives the necessary legal authority). The work actually carried on under each function will depend, of course, on the type of community, the agencies already active, the degree of combination of existing agencies effected, legal provisions, and the problems demanding attention. A skeleton form of the plan is presented on page 71. Different practical forms, variations of this outline, will be suggested in the chapters discussing organization in rural districts, villages, towns, and counties.¹⁶

¹⁶ The method of conducting the discussion following the presentation of the report at the mass-meeting and of initiating the community plan will be considered in detail in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER III

SURVEY METHODS AND DATA

BACKGROUND FOR THE SURVEY

THE social survey is concerned primarily with a study of social problems and social resources and the relation of the two. The inquiry, however, has the definite purpose of determining a plan for their better coördination. Therefore, before the surveyor begins his detailed inquiry into local problems and resources, it will be well for him to get a general idea of the community and its spirit or "temper." He must determine very soon after reaching the community whether or not there is a strong community feeling and ready coöperation, for without them community organization is virtually impossible. It is also necessary for him to obtain a background or a general impression of the community to aid him better to appreciate the facts collected and to fit them into the specific picture that the community presents. A ride around the city or the community will furnish a bird's-eye view of its location, its general plan or layout, and its appearance as a whole. Always the surveyor must be on his mettle to gather suggestions about the town's history, clues to im-

portant political bargainings, old quarrels, possible disagreements between employers and labor unions, early social welfare activities scoffed at and discarded, and booms that failed or succeeded.

It is essential that he understand the history of the community. For example, in one town a surveyor discovered that in its early days the town had been sharply divided over the liquor question. For many years this community had the reputation of being one of the most lawless in the state. Eventually prohibition was adopted, but illicit liquor-selling flourished, winked at by the authorities. The town was divided into two hostile, suspicious, and bitter groups. With the passing of the years it became a prosperous business center, but no effort had succeeded in bringing the two antagonistic elements together in a working whole. Any plan proposed by either faction had failed miserably, and there was no community program. The project of a social survey was presented at a meeting of business men by an outsider who was later invited to make a survey of the town. This social engineer was wise enough to work with both groups, and because of his good-fellowship, his ability to mingle with all kinds of people, his independence and disinterestedness, he was ultimately able to bring the diverse elements in the community together for the first time in a common plan for the welfare of all the people.

In another city the surveyor learned that socially the city was divided into two cliques, each

led by one of two sisters. One of these was very wealthy, and the other, because of her newspaper connections, very influential. The former apparently had little interest in social welfare movements; but the latter was a leader in their promotion. The problem for the surveyor was to bring both groups together for the support and direction of a centralized social welfare agency. When the plan was put into effect, a part of each group was working. In the course of the next year or two the social service bureau carried out a continuously developing program by engaging a visiting nurse in addition to the trained social worker and later establishing a day nursery. Through this constructive plan the city became a harmonious unit, with its energies concentrated to solve the common problems.

Besides the history, the surveyor must learn whether the community is dominantly agricultural, manufacturing, or commercial; whether it is made up of retired farmers or is a suburb of a larger city and therefore largely residential. Other questions will naturally follow: what are its natural resources, the soil, climate, waterways, and available power? and what are its acquired or developed resources, such as water supply, transportation, lighting, paving, and sewerage system?

An acquaintance with the governmental régime is indispensable. Not only must the surveyor know the type of local or town government, but he must also be familiar with its relation to the

county and to the state. The code of state laws, the method of procedure and rules of the county officials, especially the county supervisors or commissioners, and the local ordinances must be thoroughly digested and must be always at hand for ready reference. Such knowledge will enable the surveyor to fit his plan for the community into the general governmental scheme. He would be helpless unless he knew what are the tax-raising agencies, what are the legally established social institutions, such as the different courts, poor relief administration, almshouse, correctional facilities, hospitals, child welfare agencies, and what are the laws governing child labor, juvenile and adult delinquency, desertion, non-support, adoption of children, school attendance, compensation for industrial accidents, health and sanitation, and police protection. The surveyor should make a special effort to cultivate the officials charged with the enforcement of these laws and in charge of the regularly and legally created social agencies.

After the social engineer has acquired a working knowledge of these factors, he is ready to begin the inquiry into the more intimate social facts that the survey must depend upon as a foundation for the community scheme. These social data will deal with the people—their nationality, living conditions, occupations, incomes, and expenses; their facilities for recreation; and the conditions of sanitation and general health. An examination must be made into the different

phases of child life; the amount of juvenile delinquency; and the provisions made for neglected, dependent, and delinquent children. It is not enough to study the child, the boy or the girl; the survey should also include the adult and the family as a unit, with a review of the degree and kind of adult delinquency, the number of families more or less dependent, the causes for such dependency, the amount expended for relief by public and private agencies, and the character of efforts made in behalf of the poverty-stricken. The facts thus gained will lead to an investigation of the organized social agencies, whether supported by private or by public funds, to ascertain their purposes, their forms of organization, their business methods, their equipment, their management and administration, and the efficiency of operation in attempting to carry out their purposes. As a result, a definite knowledge of their relation to each other and to the local needs will be obtained, and judgment may be reached as to whether they are adequate. All of these facts have a distinct bearing on the formulation of the community program.

The background of the survey, as has been shown, consists of a number of component parts which dovetail and against which the details will stand out in full relief. These elements are the local spirit, type of community, history, natural and developed resources, social laws, and institutions. The more minute data to be gathered

item by item will be concerned with the population or people; health; education; recreation; living, industrial, and economic conditions. A number of survey outlines with elaborate questionnaires have been printed. To these reference is made in the bibliography. Because the method of making a survey varies with every community it is believed that the particular content of the questionnaire must be left largely to the surveyor. Therefore only a skeleton form is offered here.

SURVEY OUTLINE

I. THE SOCIAL AND LEGAL BACKGROUND

1. History
 - a.* date of settlement
 - b.* type of settlers
 - c.* early activities, industrial
 - d.* real-estate booms
 - e.* early labor disputes
 - f.* early political affiliations
 - g.* political issues
 - h.* local leaders
 - i.* social divisions
 - j.* early welfare efforts
2. Type of community
 - a.* agricultural—active
 - b.* retired farmers
 - c.* suburban—residential
 - d.* manufacturing
 - e.* mining
 - f.* commercial
 - g.* railroad
3. Natural resources
 - a.* soil—fertility
 - b.* climate
 - c.* available minerals, lumber and coal
 - d.* drainage

- e. scenic advantages
- f. water-power and waterways
- 4. Acquired or developed resources
 - a. water supply
 - b. sewerage system
 - c. lighting
 - d. available power for manufacturing
 - e. paving
 - f. roads, country roads leading to community
 - g. transportation
 - steam
 - electric
 - auto-express
 - marine
- 5. Governmental régime
 - A. State laws
 - a. regarding children
 - (1) support of by legal guardians
 - (2) adoption of
 - (3) delinquencies defined and treatment of
 - (4) juvenile court and probation officers
 - (5) mothers' pensions
 - (6) school attendance, truancy or school attendance officers, provision for special classes
 - (7) child labor
 - (8) illegitimacy, support of illegitimate child
 - (9) age of consent
 - (10) recreation, restrictions on pool and billiard halls, license regulations, playgrounds, social centers, wider use of schools
 - (11) health, inspection of school children
 - b. regarding adults
 - (1) vagrancy, begging
 - (2) non-support
 - (3) desertion
 - (4) intemperance
 - (5) use of drugs
 - (6) prostitution
 - (7) limitation of hours of labor, men and women
 - (8) minimum wage

- (9) workmen's compensation
- (10) safety protection in industry
- (11) employment bureaus
- (12) health, birth registration, reportable diseases, quarantine
- (13) settlement or residence
- (14) housing
- (15) taxation, assessment value
 - limit of tax levies
 - state
 - county
 - city
 - school

B. State boards and officials having to do with social welfare: composition, duties, service to local communities, authority

- (1) state board of control
- (2) board of charities
- (3) prison board or board of parole
- (4) other boards for control and administration of state institutions
- (5) commission for the blind
- (6) factory inspection bureau
- (7) bureau of labor statistics and state industrial commission (workmen's compensation)
- (8) board of health
 - vital statistics
 - examinations and licenses
 - protection of local water supply
 - establishment of local health units
- (9) food and dairy commission
 - protection of food, inspection
 - inspection of dairies
 - tuberculin test of cattle
 - refund for destruction of animals
- (10) library commission
- (11) state superintendent of public instruction or education, elected or appointed, or state board of education
 - examination of teachers
 - state aid
 - inspection and grading of local schools

- (12) department of agriculture
 - bulletins
 - extension service
 - county and state fairs
 - refund for destruction of crops
 - (13) highway commission
- C. State institutions: location, administration, conditions of admission, cost to county, support, cost of operation, population*
- (1) school for the blind
 - (2) school for the deaf and dumb
 - (3) state orphanage
 - (4) hospital for crippled children
 - (5) industrial homes for boys and girls
 - (6) hospitals for the insane
 - (7) colony for the epileptic
 - (8) institution for the feeble-minded
 - (9) sanatorium for treatment of tuberculosis
 - (10) reformatories, farms for misdemeanants
 - (11) penitentiaries
 - (12) soldiers' homes
- D. County system of government*
- a. supervisors or commissioners, number, how elected, powers*
 - b. tax levy, amount, for what purposes*
 - c. other county boards appointed by supervisors, duties*
 - d. other county boards independent of supervisors, duties*
 - e. county superintendent of schools, powers and duties*
 - f. county institutions*
 - (1) almshouse
 - (2) hospitals
 - (3) juvenile detention home or orphanage
 - (4) jail or reformatory
 - (5) farm colony
 - (6) workhouse
 - g. county board of welfare, composition, duties, relation to state board or boards and to county supervisors*
 - h. county board of visitors, composition, duties, relation to state and county authorities*

- i.* county board of health, composition, duties, relation to state board

E. Municipal government

- a.* form
- b.* tax power and yearly budget, items of same
- c.* what publicly owned utilities
 - waterworks
 - electric-light plant
 - gas plant
 - city railroad
- d.* ordinances
 - (1) vagrancy
 - (2) begging
 - (3) housing
 - (4) garbage collection and sanitation
- e.* city boards, how chosen, duties, relation to county and state
 - (1) park board, any plan for civic center
 - (2) recreation commission
 - (3) board of health
 - (4) board of charities
 - (5) board of child welfare
 - (6) board of public or social welfare
 - (7) civil service commission
- f.* courts, how chosen, duties, relation to each other and to state, county, and city authorities
 - (1) circuit or district
 - (2) county
 - (3) municipal, domestic relations
 - (4) police
 - (5) justice of the peace
- g.* municipal institutions, supported by municipal, not by county, funds
 - (1) outdoor relief
 - (2) almshouse
 - (3) children's home or child-placing agency
 - (4) hospitals
 - (5) parks and playgrounds
 - (6) farm colonies
 - (7) jails or reformatories
 - (8) lodging-house
- h.* school district activities
 - (1) tax levy and items of budget

- (2) school board, number, how often elected, functions
 - (3) schools
 - (4) social centers
 - (5) playgrounds
 - (6) athletics
- i. local officials, how chosen, duties, powers
- (1) police
 - (2) town marshal
 - (3) truant officer
 - (4) probation officers
 - (5) judges
 - (6) township trustees
 - (7) health officer
 - (8) sanitary inspector
 - (9) superintendent of schools
 - (10) county agent (farm bureau)
 - (11) county welfare superintendent
 - (12) overseer of the poor

The first objective of the surveyor should be the material represented in the above outline. A knowledge of the legal background and general characteristics of the community is an indispensable tool, and the surveyor makes a grave mistake if he undertakes to conduct the examination of community problems and resources without this preliminary review for his own benefit.

The survey proper may be divided for convenience into three sections, one dealing directly with the various social, sanitary, industrial, educational, and recreational conditions; a second treating these features of community life as they are found reflected in the individual homes; and the third giving analytical consideration to the welfare agencies. The methods of compiling the data should be modified to correspond with the

sources of information for each of the three divisions.

SURVEY OUTLINE

II. SURVEY PROPER

Section 1. The Community

1. The people
 - a.* number
 - b.* nationality
 - c.* growth or decline by decades
 - d.* causes for such growth or decline
 - e.* any congested areas—what is block or acre density?
 - f.* character of such areas
 - g.* is population of shifting type? are there constant removals?
2. Sanitation
 - a.* kind of water supply
 - b.* extent of use
 - c.* sewer system; extent of; how completely used? where available?
 - d.* any dump; location of; near homes?
 - e.* any gullies, ponds, or swamps?
 - f.* any bottom-lands that are subject to floods?
 - g.* garbage disposal
 - h.* condition of streets; how cleaned? how often?
 - i.* protection of food and milk
3. Health and vital statistics
 - a.* number of disease cases recorded within past five years; what are reportable by law? any epidemics?
 - b.* death-rates by age, disease, and nationality
 - c.* birth-rate by nationality
4. Education
 - a.* schools (indicate number of each type)
 - (1) type:
 - public
 - parochial
 - (2) grade:
 - elementary
 - high
 - normal

- (3) special:
 - night
 - technical
 - special types of pupils
 - retarded
 - feeble-minded
 - deaf
 - blind
 - crippled
 - b.* medical inspection
 - c.* social centers in schools
 - d.* number of children of school age
 - e.* percentage in attendance
 - f.* percentage finishing grades; finishing high school or other course
 - g.* percentage dropping out after passing age of compulsory school attendance
 - h.* vocational guidance or training
 - i.* libraries; kind, accessibility, and use
 - j.* art galleries and museums
5. Recreation: kinds, number, equipment, supervision, requirements for admission, attendance
- a.* public through community
 - (1) parks
 - (2) picnic grounds
 - (3) playgrounds
 - (4) swimming-pools and bath-houses
 - (5) public baths
 - (6) social centers
 - (7) band concerts
 - (8) municipal dance-halls
 - (9) athletics—baseball, football, tennis, etc.
 - b.* semi-public, largely philanthropic
 - (1) settlements
 - (2) social centers
 - (3) churches—clubs, classes, gymnasium, lunch clubs, moving pictures
 - (4) Y. M. C. A.
 - (5) Y. W. C. A.
 - (6) Y. M. H. A.
 - (7) Knights of Columbus
 - (8) patriotic societies
 - (9) Community Service Incorporated

- (10) lodges
- (11) Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls; other boys' and girls' clubs
- c. commercial recreational facilities
 - (1) moving-picture shows
 - (2) dance-halls
 - (3) theaters
 - (4) concerts
 - (5) pool and billiard halls
 - (6) bowling-alleys
 - (7) shooting-galleries
 - (8) skating-rinks
 - (9) amusement parks
 - (10) boat excursions
- d. miscellaneous
 - (1) streets
 - (2) "loafing-places"
 - (3) club-houses
 - (4) promenades
- 6. Crime
 - a. kinds of courts and their jurisdiction
 - b. number of arrests and charges preferred
 - (1) men
 - (2) women
 - (3) children
 - c. convictions and disposition of cases
 - d. probation officers for children; for adults
 - (1) how appointed
 - (2) salaries
 - e. is suspended sentence used? to what extent?
 - f. are domestic relations cases summoned by prosecuting attorney and settled informally, *i.e.*, without formal court hearing?
 - g. are there women police?
- 7. Industrial and economic situation
 - a. per capita wealth of community
 - b. percentage of homes owned
 - c. kinds of employment through different industries
 - d. number of men, women, and children employed in each
 - e. steadiness of employment
 - what industries are operated all year?
 - what ones are seasonal?

- f.* rate of wages paid for different types of work
- g.* activities of unions, number of unions, degree of control of industry
- h.* employers' leagues, membership, activities
- i.* strikes in last ten years, causes of, settlement
- j.* child labor
- k.* industrial accidents
- l.* welfare work
- m.* employment agencies
- n.* coöperative business enterprises

Section 2. The Homes of the People; Living Conditions

1. The house
 - a.* type—single, duplex, tenement
 - b.* number of rooms
 - c.* owned or rented, amount of rent
 - d.* ventilation; heat; light; overcrowding
 - e.* roomers, boarders
 - f.* repair
2. The sanitation
 - a.* water supply, city, driven well, dug well, cistern
 - b.* toilet—type
 - c.* bath
 - d.* sewer connection
3. The yard
 - a.* space; grassed; condition
 - b.* out-buildings, barns, garage
 - c.* animals kept on premises
 - d.* chicken-yard
4. The family
 - a.* number of children by age and sex
 - b.* number of adults, father, mother, other relatives
 - c.* lodgers
 - d.* boarders
 - e.* nationality
 - f.* how long in United States, in state, in community, in present dwelling
 - g.* health of each member of family
 - h.* education of each member of family
 - i.* occupation of each member of family (income if possible)

- j.* recreation at home¹
- k.* recreation away from home¹

Section 3. Social Welfare Agencies

1. Agencies dealing with needy families

Facts desired:

- name of agency
- purpose
- volume of work
- financial report
- equipment
- method of operation, investigation, records
- number of employees and plan of administration
- coöperation with other agencies

Types of agencies:

- a.* public relief, county, city, state
 - (1) poor relief
 - (2) widows' or mothers' pensions
 - (3) pensions to blind
 - (4) soldiers' relief
- b.* associated charities or charity society
- c.* American Red Cross
- d.* church societies giving aid
- e.* lodges
- f.* clubs
- g.* Salvation Army, Volunteers of America
- h.* confidential exchange or registration bureau

(NOTE: If there is no confidential exchange, the surveyor or his assistants should compile a card catalog of names of all families aided during the past year, any family data possible, problems found in different families, kinds of aid rendered. This plan will give at least an approximation of the number of families cared for, types of problems, and duplication of work.)

2. Child welfare organizations

Facts desired:

- any state supervision
- purpose of society or institution
- auspices under which conducted
- volume of work

¹ Typical schedules for Section 2 will be found in the appendix.

finances; amount of yearly budget with items, source of funds, subscriptions, or endowment
equipment
plan of administration, executive board and employees
rules of admission, placement, and supervision of children

Types of agencies:

- a. orphanages
- b. child-placing societies
- c. boarding-homes
- d. day nurseries
 why necessary? are mothers encouraged to work and fathers encouraged to shift responsibility?
- e. summer outing work
- f. milk stations
- g. free ice distribution
- h. maternity homes

3. Homeless men and women.

Facts desired:

type of work; under what auspices? public or private?
equipment
finances
volume of work
administration, employees
conditions of admission; work test
supervision

Types of agencies:

- a. lodging-houses for men
- b. cheap hotels
- c. care at jails without arrest
- d. boarding-homes for women and girls
- e. refuges for unmarried mothers

4. Health

Facts desired:

kind of work; group reached
support
supervision and inspection
finances
volume of work
administration

Types of agencies:

- a. visiting nurses
- b. clinics

- c.* hospitals
- d.* city and county physicians
- e.* anti-tuberculosis society
- f.* social hygiene association
- g.* society for the prevention of infant mortality
- h.* rest cottage
- i.* convalescent homes
- j.* rest-rooms
- k.* comfort stations

5. Institutions for special classes

Facts desired:

- type of ward
- supervision
- conducted under what auspices
- finances, volume of work, equipment, cleanliness
- administration, employees
- conditions of admission and discharge

Types of institutions:

- a.* jails, reformatories, farm colonies
- b.* detention homes for children
- c.* hospitals for insane
 - epileptic
 - crippled
- d.* homes for aged and infirm
- e.* schools for blind
- f.* schools for deaf
- g.* almshouse
- h.* institution for feeble-minded

6. Voluntary organizations

Facts desired:

- name
- membership, conditions of membership
- purposes, activities
- finances

Types of organizations:

- a.* lodges
- b.* grange
- c.* farm bureau
- d.* women's clubs
- e.* men's social, business, and professional clubs

- f.* civic association
- g.* coöperative societies

7. Churches

Facts desired:

- denomination
- membership
- building and equipment
- activities for members and attendants
- social center features
- finances
- coöperation with social welfare agencies

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

To cover such a variety of topics involves a vast amount of labor and an investigation into many unexplored fields. However, the investigator will without doubt find much information available in every instance. The ordinary citizen does not realize the wealth of significant social data lying loose, as it were, which may be readily compiled through the effort of a few questions. Old residents, "key" people, leading business men, politicians, physicians, lawyers, ministers, priests, teachers, officials, the county agricultural agent, labor leaders, and representatives of any established social welfare agencies will be glad to pour into sympathetic ears the history of the community, its problems, and their dreams for its welfare. It is sometimes astonishing to one who has done little community work to find how eager the people are to discuss the community's problems, and it sometimes humbles the investigator to hear the hopes and the struggles of the

few far-seeing citizens for a more perfect home city. Often old and much prized treasures of photographs, old newspapers or clippings, old reports and letters will be unearthed for the delight of the stranger. The personal interview will not only result in obtaining information, but will also enlist in intimate fashion influential and oftentimes conservative men and women.

In developing the outline submitted, the surveyor will find that there are two general sources of information to be utilized for Section 1, dealing with the community: (1) official reports and statistics, which are already compiled or which he must compile himself from official sources; and (2) personal visits, careful scrutiny, and critical observation on his part. The state and the national census, reports of state and local boards of health, of the state food and dairy commission, of the state auditor, of the state board of charities and other state boards, of local and state engineers, of the county agricultural agent, of the state geographical survey, of state departments of agriculture and of mines, of state railroad commissioners, and of the county auditor, county supervisors, and the city clerk will afford valuable information. Many states issue a "blue" or "red" book giving state census reports, lists of officials, changes in laws, concise summaries of reports of different state departments, and a review of the general progress, prosperity, and wealth of the state. Such books are invaluable. The state code, rules

of the county board of supervisors or county commissioners, and local ordinances must always be in the possession of the surveyor and diligently studied.

The secretary of the school board or the superintendent will be able to give local school statistics, but it will also be necessary to consult the state superintendent of instruction or state board of education to learn the rating of the schools. The surveyor should personally visit all educational institutions in the community in order to appreciate the plant and equipment, and should interview each principal and superintendent.

The survey of recreational facilities should be most exhaustive, since in many communities the problem of recreation is most pressing, but is seldom recognized except by a few thoughtful fathers and mothers. Reports of the local park board, of settlements, churches, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, lodges, and other public or private agencies should be reviewed and their facilities carefully investigated. All commercial amusement places should be quietly visited, not once, but often enough to understand their character and their patronage. The surveyor must be on the alert when on the street to observe play spaces for children, "loafing-places," and the conduct of young men and women on the streets, especially at night and on Saturday and Sunday nights.

Figures regarding both juvenile and adult de-

linquency should be secured. They may be obtained from the different courts, from police, town marshal, and probation, parole, and truant or school attendance officers.

Employment offices, unions, pay-rolls, commercial organizations, employers, and state departments of labor and factory inspection will furnish data regarding rate of wages, types and regularity of employment, industrial accidents, child labor, and welfare work. Typical shops, factories, and stores should be visited.

Three possible methods for securing data regarding the home life of the people may be suggested:—

1. A house-to-house canvass may be made and a simple card schedule filled out, giving the most essential data. If this plan is used, volunteers who have been instructed and drilled in approach to the family, and in the necessity for obtaining complete replies to all questions on the schedule, or trained workers, local or imported for the survey, may be used. The questions must be direct, simple, and not too personal. Rarely is it advisable to attempt to learn the wage or salary, or the value of property and whether or not it is mortgaged.

2. The second plan is to fill out schedules for families living in different parts of the community and representing different types of homes. This canvass of representative or typical homes is more satisfactory than a block survey, which is apt to

bring into too great prominence a certain group of families which may or may not be typical. Sometimes a study is made of the families that have been aided by the local charities the previous year, or of families in which there is evident need for some kind of social service. This study of a special type of families is very helpful for limited surveys.

3. The third method is possible only in small communities in which the publicity campaign has been sufficiently extensive to result in enlisting the coöperative support of all the citizens. It consists in distributing family cards or questionnaires to every family, to be filled in by the family and returned to the central committee or to ward or precinct chairman. This third plan is by far the most effective method, but it necessitates an elaborate system of education and a comprehensive organization of all the citizens.

The outline of Section 3, dealing with social welfare agencies, indicates the general method to be followed in studying the various types of organizations. It is a wise plan to analyze the reports covering at least the preceding five years of the organization's history to ascertain its growth and to gain an idea of its influence in the community. Equipment, management, executive force, finances, purpose, and membership or patrons and patronage should be thoroughly investigated, together with the working relationship that exists between societies of related purposes. The

executive secretaries can give succinct evidence of the spirit dominant among welfare agencies and of their coöperation or lack of it. They will also give voice to their ideas of the social needs of the community and the plan they consider feasible for meeting them. The intelligent coöperation of the welfare agencies will do much to make the social survey successful in the accomplishment of community organization.

All statistics should be as complete as possible, and none should be used unless their accuracy is vouched for by authorized agents. All facts must be recorded, even if they should seem to the investigator to be unimportant or contradictory, and no obstacle should be allowed to stand in the way of securing data essential for interpreting the local situation. In one city some difficulty was encountered in obtaining access to the records of poor relief. It was necessary to secure the consent of the supervisors, and even to bring some pressure from the business men's organization that was financing the survey, although the records were public records. When the data were finally secured, it was discovered that there was no adequate system of records, data being kept only by means of the stubs of the overseer of the poor's order books. In order to determine the number of different families aided and the kind and amount of aid given, it was necessary to compile a card catalog on which to tabulate the data obtained. Consequently the stubs of all or-

ders issued during a certain period were checked through, and the information thus secured was transcribed to the cards.

The surveyor should be careful to make notes as he gathers the data, and should not trust to his memory. Diagrams, maps, and pictures secured during the course of the survey will be most helpful when he begins to assemble his data.

After all the data have been accumulated, they must be organized, summed up, and analyzed. All possible facts relating to any problem and to its different phases must be considered and carefully checked to avoid errors. When a surprising condition is revealed, the surveyor must not jump at conclusions as to causes, but must weigh all possible evidence that may have any bearing on it. Unrelated data must not be compared, and partial data must not be given equal consideration with complete data.¹⁸ The analysis should reveal all of the social problems; also the different types of social welfare agencies, their interrelations, their weaknesses and their strength. The survey must present the life of the community as it is.

IMPORTANCE OF SCHEDULES

While there are certain fundamental principles that always govern the conduct of a survey, the specific method of procedure and organization must conform to the local situation. A similar statement may be made regarding the type of

¹⁸ These suggestions represent recognized statistical principles.

schedule or blank by means of which the data may be secured. Comparatively simple schedules must be the rule when volunteers are the visitors. Schedules used by professional or governmental surveyors are elaborate, exhaustive, and somewhat complicated. In any instance, the same form can seldom be used in two communities. The purpose of the survey—that is, the kind of survey, general, comprehensive, informal, unit, or continuous—and the type of community in which the survey is to be made will determine the scope of the schedule and suggest both its content and form.

A few simple rules for guidance in preparing a survey blank may be offered. If a card is used, ruled and blocked in for answers, every item must be definitely stated, so that there is no question as to the way in which the answer should be indicated. If there are abbreviations, a key to their meaning should always be given. In case a regular questionnaire form is used, the questions should be clear and if possible so phrased that a number or “yes” or “no” can serve as the answer. If it is not possible, then the questions should call for very brief explanatory replies. Before visitors are sent out with the schedules, they must be made thoroughly conversant with the questions and the type of answers desired. It is a good plan to furnish each visitor with type-written directions or instructions. The size of the schedule will vary from eight by eleven to five

by eight inches. It should, however, be of such size and shape that it can be easily handled.

Volunteer visitors are always concerned about how they shall gain admission to the house and how they shall enlist the interest of the family called upon, so that answers to all the questions of the schedule may be obtained. If the publicity campaign has been effective, the majority of the people will understand the purpose of the survey and the visitor will encounter few obstacles. If the survey is not generally understood, it will devolve upon the visitor to explain what she is doing and why. Volunteer visitors are almost always shy, self-conscious, and uncertain in their approach to the family. They should be made to appreciate the fact that a friendly, neighborly attitude on their part, a courteous manner, and tactful directness will secure a responsive interest. The successful volunteer is invariably surprised at the coöperative spirit manifested.¹⁹

¹⁹ In the appendix is given a series of schedule forms with a brief explanation of each. These schedules are not presented as absolute or ideal forms, but are offered simply as practical suggestions for surveys of different kinds. The instructor in community organization will find an enlightening exercise in requiring the student to prepare a trial survey outline and home card which might be used in a town known to the student or one for which the size and brief description of conditions are given.

CHAPTER IV

SMALL-TOWN ORGANIZATION

TYPES OF SOCIAL WELFARE ACTIVITIES FOR THE SMALLER TOWN AND CITY

FOR the purpose of outlining practical forms of town organization, an arbitrary division has been drawn. The village under 2500 will be included in the chapter on rural organization. This chapter deals primarily with the incorporated town of from 2500 to 25,000, although the centralized form of organization suggested has been adopted in towns as large as 40,000 and is readily adaptable to the town up to 100,000. As a matter of fact, the plan of organization given merges into the *county welfare plan* discussed in the chapter dealing with the organization of the county.

It is not always possible at once to correlate and coördinate the community activities in a common plan. Several months or even years may be spent in educating the citizens to recognize the need for coöperative and well directed community effort. In the meantime, interest may be aroused by carrying to completion some definite social welfare project. Besides, it will be found that an understanding of the different phases of the social

field will aid materially in approaching the often difficult problem of effecting community organization.

The usual social welfare activities of the small town include (1) civics or legalized service, *i.e.*, service guaranteed and established by statute or ordinance, and civic improvement; (2) education; (3) recreation; (4) public health and sanitation; (5) moral and religious welfare; (6) economic welfare; (7) family and (8) child welfare. It is difficult to separate the field into these groups, and the classification is a purely tentative one. The differentiation is made simply to indicate that different communities may find it easier to start at some one point and gradually extend their activities over the entire field. It will be readily appreciated that there is a very close relationship and interplay among the divisions. For example, recreation promotes education; the welfare of the child and the family is dependent upon economic sufficiency, which in turn largely depends on education, health, and attainment of legal rights. Social and industrial efficiency are in large measure determined by the way in which leisure time is expended.

It is sometimes possible to arouse the interest of the citizens in a community movement by a series of lectures on social welfare subjects. Such a program might well be considered a part of a publicity campaign, in view of an often astonishing ignorance of what constitutes social problems

and of the most elementary methods of dealing with them. The assistance of the Extension Division of the State Agricultural College or State University may be secured to help plan and conduct such a lecture or study course. In some towns a civic movement has stimulated interest in local conditions and led to a study of social laws and institutions of the state and the community. The civic effort may revolve about a plan to beautify the city, to secure the adoption of a city plan with a civic center, to promote garden club contests and clean-up day campaigns, or may concern itself simply with the selection of a committee to patrol streets and alleys and notify owners to clean them if they are cluttered up with rubbish or with refuse. To provide recreation, the community may buy a park, establish playgrounds with supervision and equipment, conduct community singing, band concerts, athletic contests, promote pageants, dramatic clubs, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, and organize social centers in the public schools, a community Christmas tree, a Fourth-of-July celebration, an old settlers' picnic, a home-coming or a community-day institute.

The town may need a library, a new school building, or an addition to the present one or new equipment. A lecture or lyceum course or summer Chautauqua may be sponsored. With the coöperation of citizens and theater managers, a superior grade of motion pictures may be secured. Ameri-

canization and citizenship classes may be arranged. To conserve the health interests, a hospital may be built, quarantine laws more strictly enforced, a visiting nurse or community nurse employed, baby and child welfare contests, demonstrations, and exhibits held, a practical plan for the disposition of garbage worked out, and a municipal water plant or sewer system may be secured.

Perhaps better housing should be advocated. The establishment of comfort stations and rest-rooms is possible even in the smaller towns. Sanitary conditions in grocery and meat markets should be demanded and, if necessary, the help of the state food and dairy commission solicited. Child welfare interests may be promoted by utilizing the services of the juvenile court and the truancy department of the public school and insisting upon modern methods of child-placing. The welfare of the child, however, will be insured most effectively through the development of high standards of home life and by protection against those forces that tend to destroy moral stability. For the care of the needy family there must be a mutual understanding among the different agencies giving relief, to avoid duplication of effort; there must be tactful, confidential investigations and constructive plans for the family's future to enable the family to become self-supporting, if that is possible. An employment exchange, even in very simple form, is most helpful. Besides, the

community is under obligation to enforce the child labor law and to prevent dangerous or insanitary working conditions for all workers.

In adopting any form of activity extreme care must be taken to make sure that it is desirable and meets an actual need. No plan should be imported bodily just because it has proved a success in some other city. It may not work in a different community. For example, a town of 3000 people had a very pretty little park lying at the farther edge of the town limits. Some one conceived the idea of establishing a playground there. A wealthy citizen became interested and furnished the money for various kinds of apparatus. The idea was commendable, but because of its location the playground was little used. The promoters of the movement were much discouraged, and the generous citizen was disinclined at a later date to give money for what promised to be a comprehensive and practical community program because the earlier social welfare venture had been a failure.

FORMS OF ORGANIZATION FOR THE SMALL TOWN

There are two more or less generally used forms of organization in the small town. The first is the promotion and often the administration of a social welfare activity affecting the entire community by a small or select group; the second is the centralization of all existing agencies engaged in social welfare work into a compact unit for the

consideration of local needs and the development of those activities that best advance the general welfare.

As an example of the first type may be cited the work of women's clubs, which have been very active in civic affairs and which have in many of the small towns organized improvement or civic leagues or associations. Theoretically, membership is open to every woman in the community. As a matter of fact, only a small percentage of the women usually belong. Various standing committees are appointed having to do with sanitation, education, beautification, streets and alleys, rest-rooms, tree culture, charity, membership, and finance. Often many reforms are carried out and a stronger community pride is developed.

The principal criticism of this form of organization is that it is limited to women, or, if not limited to women, is engineered and largely officered by women. Membership in a community organization should be open to every resident, and the officers and executive board should be representative of all local interests. As a town grows there is apt to follow a separation of the citizens into small units, with lines of division determined by birth, social position, or wealth. There may be among the groups a great deal of community feeling, but unless it is organized it remains ineffective.

Sometimes it is possible to develop an existing agency into a community organization by changing the conditions of membership so as to include

all residents of the community and by enlarging the scope of its program. The original name may be retained or a new one may be chosen in keeping with the plan of reorganization. One serious difficulty with this type of association is that its earlier constitution and program remain in the minds of the citizens. Consequently its effort to become a community organization may be unsuccessful.

The second plan, which is the centralization of welfare effort, may involve an actual consolidation of existing privately supported agencies into one organization or the combination of public and private social welfare agencies under a board representative of both and financed by both. The trained social worker employed as the executive secretary by the joint board would carry on the functions of both the private and public groups. Opportunity for membership should be extended to any citizen on payment of a nominal membership fee. The directing board should be composed of from twelve to twenty representative citizens (both men and women) who are responsible for the administration of the organization.

The following examples will illustrate methods of centralization. In a town of 17,000, in which there had been no centralized effort to consider the social problems that were evident to the most casual observer, a movement was started as the result of the Christmas giving, which had stirred every one concerned by its revelation of poverty,

neglected children, bad housing. and the unnecessary duplication of relief. A welfare association was organized, with a board composed of representatives of churches, lodges, commercial and civic organizations, the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A., and of certain city and county officials. A social survey was made, and outlined what promised to be the most effective methods of serving the community. A trained social worker was employed, a modern system of records was installed, and the administration of all private relief was delegated to the new society. The probation work of the juvenile courts and the truancy work of the public schools were also placed within the jurisdiction of the welfare agency. The city provided office room in its beautiful new city hall. Later a visiting nurse was added to the staff and a day nursery was opened. The work of the welfare association was not limited to the administration of relief funds, but included the promotion and direction of other city activities: for example, the holding of a child welfare week, with lectures, motion pictures, examinations, and exhibits.

In another community of 24,000 a social survey was made at the request of the commercial club. The most active welfare agency had failed because of lack of funds and had been disbanded about a year before, and as a result the social work of the city was in a rather chaotic condition. The data for the survey were gathered largely by vol-

unteers, many of whom for the first time in their lives came in intimate contact with the individual families who live at the margin of economic and social life. Their interest in an attempt to solve some of the problems and prevent their recurrence helped greatly to promote a centralized agency. No one wanted merely another society. There were already a number of agencies in the city that were collecting funds for social welfare but that lacked the right leadership and policies to accomplish anything of permanent value.

As a result of the survey, of conferences with the representatives of all organized groups of the city, and a big mass-meeting, two of the oldest and most influential societies voted themselves out of existence and agreed to turn over their activities and their funds to a new agency which should be representative of all the phases of community life. Accordingly, a social service league was formed and a trained social worker employed as secretary. The secretary was made truant officer, and in her office and closely associated with her is the school nurse. The visiting nurse is a member of the staff and her salary is paid from the funds of the league. The league has brought together, in a working relationship hitherto unknown in this community, the police department, the park department, the school board, the board of health, the churches, the women's clubs, and the business and professional men.

Following a social survey in 1916, a city of

24,000 developed the Bureau of Community Service, which absorbed three distinct agencies, the Associated Charities, the Anti-Tuberculosis League, and the General Survey Committee. There is a board of managers, whose members are in turn chairmen of special committees on finance, better housing, fresh-air camp, family service, recreation, Boy Scouts, health, community house, and legal matters. The Bureau coöperates with the city and county authorities, the school board, and all other governmental as well as privately supported agencies. The one financial campaign that has resulted from the centralization of social effort has increased the amount spent for social service from \$3500 in 1916 to \$15,000 in 1920. One out of every fifteen citizens is a contributor giving at least the dollar-a-year membership fee. The activities include playgrounds, fresh-air camp, free employment service, relief, clinics, and nursing service; the latter two projects are operated and financed in coöperation with the state and the city.

METHODS OF EFFECTING ORGANIZATION

In effecting organization the survey is most helpful. Some communities that have struggled long in the effort to secure coördination of their social welfare activities have attained their goal through a survey. Because the stability of an organization will depend upon the need for it, upon the kind of directing board chosen, and upon the

support of the community, the method of presenting the plan is vital. As outlined in Chapter II, the report of the survey should be presented at a mass-meeting. The first problem relative to this meeting that confronts the survey committee is that of obtaining a large and representative attendance. General publicity through newspapers, posters, and announcements in churches, schools, clubs, and lodges, as well as personal invitations by letter and telephone, should be utilized. Then follows the problem of conducting the open discussion and of securing final action.

The success of the community program will depend largely upon the handling of the mass-meeting. Considerable enthusiasm must be created, and the method can not be left to the chance of the moment. It is assumed that the survey committee is unanimous in its support of the plan. In accordance with the community program agreed upon, the committee should draft a tentative slate of members for the executive board. Otherwise men and women who are present are apt to be nominated from the floor simply because they are present, regardless of their qualifications for service as board members.

The details of the community plan and the content of the report should not be given out before the mass-meeting. The chairman of the mass-meeting may be the chairman of the survey committee, or he may be a popular citizen who is known to make a good presiding officer. He

should by all means be a member of the committee, or at least conversant with all the plans. After the report has been read, a member of the committee or some one selected for the purpose should make a motion that it is the sense of the meeting that the report be accepted and that the plan for organization be immediately put into effect. Remarks upon the motion are then in order, and the plan may be freely discussed. The discussion must not be permitted to drag. A vote should be taken, and immediately the opportune moment should be seized and another motion put that a committee be appointed to nominate a suitable board. A member of the survey committee should be placed on the nominating committee, one who knows the tentative list of board members agreed upon.

Changes may seem advisable after the nominating committee meets, and further changes may be necessary if other nominations are desired from the floor. Care must be taken not to prevent democratic action and not to conduct the meeting in such fashion that the assembly feels that everything is "cut and dried." After the board is elected the meeting may be adjourned. The board usually elects its own officers from its membership. The responsibility for financing the association and securing the executive officer or worker devolves upon the newly elected board.

FURTHER ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATION

Since no organization can run itself, executive responsibility must be fixed. The community program should be centered in a federated or coöperative and representative centralized bureau, with a trained social worker as the community secretary. The plan of community organization may not always effect an absolute combination of local societies with similar or related purposes. In the small community, actual combination is highly desirable, but should never be attempted unless there is unanimity of feeling and a hearty willingness and desire to give up independent entity and merge all effort and activity in the one centralized agency. Sometimes federation will prove the wiser course, the societies retaining their independence, but electing representatives to the board of the community association and sharing the responsibility for the administration of the community program. It may be possible that there are organized groups that can not give up their identity. Some of these may be purely local, others, branches of state and national associations. These independent groups can act with a federation, though they could not become a part of a consolidation. Specifically, a federated plan is representative of all local groups, and the program adopted is carried out not by the federation as a unit but by the constituent agencies. The federation board and committees decide upon

policies, standards, and desirable activities, which are then referred back for adoption and administration to the different organizations. Federation may precede actual consolidation or combination and serve as the preliminary step in that direction. However, no matter what the type of organization, a community secretary is necessary to insure the actual carrying out of the program.

In some communities the employment of a trained social worker, no matter how badly needed or how generally that need was recognized, has been an impossibility because of the difficulty of raising money. The plan for a coördinated social welfare agency makes the raising of one definite yearly budget for all purposes feasible and appeals strongly to the business men. Sometimes the school board, the city council, or the county commissioners will make an appropriation for services rendered in enforcing the school attendance law, in acting as probation officer for the juvenile court, or in investigating applicants for public relief. The appointment of the social worker as overseer of the poor is sometimes desirable, as will be indicated in Chapter VI under the heading, "the Iowa Plan."

In some communities it may be found that the people are agitating the employment of a community nurse. In this event a community health association may be possible, organized on the broad basis of community participation and representation. The public health nurse then be-

comes the executive or community secretary, just as the social worker does when employed by a community organization. In such a position the public health nurse would face the questions of organization of the entire community and the development of the health association into an agency that will include in its program recreation, family and child welfare, which can not be separated from any thorough effort to promote health.

The community secretary does not have an easy task. In the large city the social worker is a specialist; in the small community he must be a "general practitioner." His training must be of the broadest kind; he must be able to mingle freely with all kinds of people. He must be good-natured but keen-witted. Energy and enthusiasm are indispensable. He must be familiar with different types of communities, forms of organization, and possible activities, and be able to estimate the facilities at his disposal in his community. One of the most frequent mistakes the social worker makes is to assume entire responsibility for the conduct of the organization. Such a course may at first be commended by the board members and the members of the association, but ultimately it means the loss of their interest and support and may even result in complete disorganization. The best plan is to give as many people as possible something to do and to throw responsibility upon the controlling board.

In his relation to the people of the community,

the secretary must not show favoritism nor confine his interest to any one group. The community organization should never be allowed to degenerate into the organ of any one clique. No one interest should dominate it or frame its policies. The secretary must be prepared for some criticism, and must be more or less oblivious to it, though it may sometimes furnish important suggestions for improvement in methods and therefore can not be utterly disregarded.

The detailed work will revolve around the promotion of those measures that will strengthen the bulwarks of the normal family, including regular and profitable employment, recreation for all the family, sanitation and health, education, and moral and spiritual welfare. It will naturally include the care of the needy family and the neglected child. In this connection it may be well to note that the latter problems present themselves insistently even in the small town, though their full significance is not always realized. For instance, the social survey of a town of 5000 disclosed the fact that no fewer than one hundred and two families, or in the neighborhood of five hundred individuals, had received or were known to need some kind of social service within the preceding year. Of these one hundred and two families, twenty-two were not charity cases, but presented other problems such as child neglect, incompetent homes, and bad management. Of the eighty families receiving aid, nine had aid

only at Christmas-time, twenty had been aided from private funds, and fifty-one had received some form of aid from county funds. Some duplication occurred: nineteen families received aid from two sources; seven from three sources; three from four; and one family from five sources. It is not necessarily a bad thing for several organizations to be interested in one family, provided each society or individual knows that the others are interested and are not duplicating relief or effort. On the contrary, unwise duplication results in waste of money, time, and energy. The worst feature, however, is the effect upon the family, which may only too easily learn ease of begging and become content to live at the expense of the town. The situation is complicated in the small unorganized community by the liberality of individual citizens in answer to appeals for aid made directly to them. It is almost impossible to secure any adequate idea of the extent of the private charity disbursed by individuals.

Another bad feature of charity administration in the small town is the frequency with which children are sent to make application for aid. Children learn all too soon the hard lessons of life and they easily develop into first-class beggars. Besides, investigations are almost always inadequate, and the father is often permitted to shift responsibility for the support of his family to his wife, to the charitably disposed citizens, or to the public treasury. Another common practice

in the smaller towns is the "shipping on" of applicants from one railroad center to another. It seems an easy way to get rid of dependents. However, the practice is an expensive one, since it results in encouraging floaters, drifters, and shiftless families. Various surveys in towns of from 5000 to 40,000 have clearly revealed this problem of family welfare and relief administration. Therefore it seems logical that the community secretary should be trained to handle the care of needy families.

The first undertaking should be a comparatively simple one and one sure of accomplishment. The program should develop consistently, each project succeeding the other naturally and as the outgrowth of present needs. The board must always keep in advance of the community and at work on the formulation of new plans, so that as soon as one venture is squarely on its feet another may be ready to stimulate the interest and absorb the energy of the community. No matter how the community agency is organized in the beginning, no matter what the primary purpose may be or the kind of worker employed, the ideal must be the eventual inclusion in the community program of all the community needs.

CHAPTER V

RURAL COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

UNTIL very recently community organization was largely confined within the corporate limits of town or city. The country resident was little considered. He was too often regarded by the town resident as an alien. The little town was desirous of being like the big city and eagerly adopted city social welfare methods and programs, although they were not always suitable. However, within the last few years the social vision has broadened to include a recognition of the needs and opportunities for social welfare in the rural districts. The economics of food production has helped to focus attention upon the farmer. Besides, under the pressure of food shortage the mutual dependence of the farmer and the townsman has come to be acknowledged. As a result a new conception of community has developed. The community is no longer regarded as confined within the set boundaries of an incorporated town or city, but has come to mean both the townspeople and the country dwellers who reside within a certain trade area. Hence it has become necessary to devise some form of organization by means of which the two elements

of the community may be brought together. Principles and methods hitherto developed and applied in town and city have been freely drawn upon and have been modified through the unique pertinencies of the situation.

The rural community almost invariably possesses some organizations. In some communities there are many of them. It is not unusual to find several churches each with its ladies' aid and missionary societies, several social clubs, lodges, a parent-teacher or mothers' club, a child welfare club, a civic improvement league, and a farmers' society, as well as the authorized governmental agencies. The task of community organization is to perfect such an understanding of community problems and to develop such a sense of responsibility for improvement that all the people and organized groups will join working forces to solve their common problems. While rural problems are varied and have to do with agriculture, the home, education, public health, and recreation, they are closely interwoven, and can not be satisfactorily met unless the community adopts a plan that embraces them all and that will deal with all their phases in the course of a number of years. In other words, the community program must include a long-term plan the continuous development of which will depend upon the results actually achieved. The plan must be businesslike, and must be carried out by means of the machinery the people themselves set up and man. Local

leaders supported by local community sentiment are indispensable.

In the community there may be division of interests or indifference and apathy. If this condition should have been of many years' standing, it is very difficult to arouse the citizens to any active effort. In some instances the citizens may individually have desired some community movement, but have either lacked the self-confidence to go ahead or have not known just how to proceed. Before any steps can be taken there must of necessity be a nucleus of interested, alert, and aggressive individuals. They must be convinced of the possibility of organizing the community to meet its own problems, and must be imbued with the desire to carry the message of community unity to every friend and acquaintance.

The method to be used in initiating any community organization may be similar to that developed in the chapter dealing with the social survey, especially the method of procedure. There may be group meetings to arouse interest and then a public mass-meeting to discuss the project. A promotion committee may be selected to enlist the coöperation of every citizen and of every organized group. If it is possible, a social survey should be undertaken. It should include an inventory of farm production, farm management, transportation, roads, telephone service, facilities for storage of farm products, types of homes and their conveniences, the interests of

the people themselves, the provision made for the welfare of boys and girls, recreational facilities for children and adults, health conditions, educational resources and school equipment, civic and governmental machinery and administration, and agencies that make for and against public morality.

The survey will give facts to be used as arguments for a community program, and above all will give a sound foundation for it. The plan for rural community welfare may include plans for improvement of actual farming operations, for closer coöperation between townsmen and farmers, and also for improvement of general community and home conditions.

FORMS OF RURAL COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

Sometimes in the rural community, as in the small town, some one group or society will attempt to serve as a community organization. For example, parent-teacher associations or mothers' clubs frequently promote the use of the schools as social centers, plan the programs, endeavor to bring the rural and town patrons together, and conduct child welfare institutes lasting for several days, together with baby contests, examinations, and child welfare exhibits.

In Virginia the Coöperative Education Association was organized in 1904, and since that time has developed more than twelve hundred community leagues throughout the state. The

school district is the unit of organization. The purpose is "to make the public school in Virginia a community center, where the citizens may unite for the improvement of their education, and social, moral, physical, civic, and economic interests." The model constitution suggested provides for committees on (1) education, (2) entertainment, social and recreational life, (3) food production and conservation, (4) roads and streets, (5) health and sanitation, and (6) publicity, membership, and citizenship. In its Community League Bulletin the Coöperative Education Association of Virginia has outlined a very comprehensive program for each committee. The suggestions are so pertinent that they are reproduced here with the consent of George W. Guy, the executive secretary.

EDUCATIONAL COMMITTEE

We here indicate a number of things that this committee should attend to. Perhaps no one committee can or would care to take up all of these items, but certain ones (very naturally the most important for the specific community) should be decided on and carried to completion, even though it may take some time to do so.

1. If your school building is in bad condition, have it repaired or go to work to secure a new one.
2. Have the school building put in perfect order for the opening of school each year, then have it kept in the best condition.
3. Make and keep the school grounds and surroundings attractive.
4. Secure a library for your school and community. If you have one already, enlarge it each year.
5. Secure complete enrolment and perfect attendance of school children.
6. Lengthen the school term if it is less than nine months.

7. If there is or can be created sufficient demand for a night school, endeavor to provide one.
8. Help secure the very best teachers, then keep them.
9. Erect or purchase a teacherage or principal's home.
10. Provide employment for principal of school, that he may remain in the community throughout the year.
11. Install domestic science and manual arts equipment if it has not already been done.
12. If yours is a small one-room school, bring about consolidation with some other school.
13. Hold a Special School Improvement Day celebration.
14. Hold an annual School and Community Fair.

SOCIAL, RECREATIONAL, AND ENTERTAINMENT COMMITTEE

Select a number of the suggestions here given as your program for the year, then make the program a success.

1. Prepare a good social program for each regular League meeting.
 2. Make the social features of the special school, health, highways, and food meetings very attractive.
 3. Hold a May or Community Day celebration in connection with the meeting of the League.
 4. Prepare a special Fourth-of-July or Independence Day program.
 5. Arrange for a union Thanksgiving service.
 6. Have a community Christmas tree.
 7. Arrange for contests between the young people of your community and other communities.
 8. Endeavor to have each family or group of families put in tennis or croquet courts, or something similar, so that the entire family may play.
 9. Hold a reception for the teachers each year, or for any new ministers that may have come into the community.
- (NOTE: Have contests in games and athletics on just as many of the special days as possible.)

CIVIC, MORAL, AND HOME IMPROVEMENT COMMITTEE

These are only a few suggestions for this committee, and each community will be able to decide on many other things that will improve the civic, moral, and home life of the people.

The committee, therefore, should carry out these suggestions and others that it may decide on.

1. Arrange civic improvement contests.
2. Planting Day.
3. Vine-covered porches and out-houses.
4. Attractive stores.
5. Attractive railway station.
6. Improve county court-house and surroundings.
7. Attractive town and city parks, and vacant property.
8. Beautify the cemetery or graveyard.
9. Replace immoral by wholesome moral meeting-places.
10. Visit jails and almshouses.
11. Provide for the care of neglected and delinquent children.
12. Promote church and Sunday-school activities.
13. Regular chapel services in the school.
14. Observe a church improvement day.
15. Home life meeting.
16. Coöperate with home demonstration agents.

COMMITTEE ON FOOD PRODUCTION AND CONSERVATION

Perhaps no one community will be able to carry out all the suggestions made below, but these are mentioned in order that the committee may decide on a few definite things.

1. Improve general farming.
2. Arrange for coöperative storage and selling.
3. Develop interest in better stock-raising.
4. Encourage home dairying.
5. Interest young and old in poultry.
6. Stimulate fruit-raising in every community.
7. Have every family raise a garden.
8. Interest boys and girls in club work.
9. Coöperate with Farmers' Union and farm demonstration agent.
10. Secure bulletins on these subjects.

COMMITTEE ON ROADS AND STREETS

Suggestions for the Committee on Roads and Streets, which should be carried out to the fullest extent possible.

1. Make plans for the upkeep of each neighborhood road.
2. Hold a special good roads meeting.
3. Arrange a special day for actually working the roads.

4. Take care of the main highways.
5. Keep before the community the necessity for and the value of good roads.
6. See that the town or city streets are kept clean and in good condition.
7. Have good sidewalks in the town or city community.

HEALTH COMMITTEE

The work of this committee is exceedingly important at this time, and if possible every suggestion here should be carried out.

1. Improve health conditions in the home.
2. Secure the best of health conditions in the school.
3. Provide medical inspection for school children.
4. Secure a visiting school nurse.
5. Handle contagious diseases vigorously.
6. Correct physical defects of school children.
7. Destroy the fly and its breeding-places.
8. Hold special clean-up days each year.
9. Observe a special health day program.

COMMITTEE ON MEMBERSHIP, PUBLICITY, AND CITIZENSHIP

1. Gather and publish social and League news.
2. Keep up a constant campaign for members.
3. Do not lose the old members.
4. See that every man of voting age qualifies himself to vote.

While no one plan of organization is ideal for every rural community, there are two general types that may be adapted as the local conditions demand. These two forms may be called (1) the community club plan and (2) the community council plan.

1. The Community Club Plan

In some communities may be found a few organized groups such as church societies and

lodges, but no association whose purpose has to do with the community as a whole. This situation makes possible the organization of a community club²⁰ to which every resident of the community over eighteen years of age may belong. The objects should include the holding of public meetings after the manner of public forums for the free discussion of matters pertaining to the welfare of the community, and the actual carrying out of those projects that the members agree are necessary for the promotion of the general welfare.

The community club should have executive, finance, program, and membership committees, and two committees dealing with welfare measures—first, a committee on economic improvement; and, second, a committee on social welfare. The former should be charged with the promotion of better methods of production and marketing, the stimulation of systematic use of up-to-date accounting, the development of better roads and adequate telephone service. The committee on social welfare should be charged with the improvement of health and sanitation, the enlargement of recreational facilities, and the extension of the educational system of the community.

The community club should coöperate with the

²⁰ Carver, T. N., "The Organization of a Rural Community," Year Book United States Department of Agriculture, 1914, pp. 89-138.

Burr, Walter, "Community Welfare in Kansas," Extension Bulletin No. 4, The Kansas State Agricultural College, Division of College Extension.

county farm bureau if there is one, or promote one if there is none, arrange farmers' institutes, agricultural exhibits, contests and demonstrations. Through the efforts of the committee on social welfare the community club may find it advisable to employ a community nurse or a recreation leader or both. In many small communities the school superintendent or principal may profitably be retained for the full year of twelve months, and act as recreation leader, using the school as the social center.

The community club should carry on the two functions of promotion of community enterprises and the actual administration of those welfare projects that are the mutual concern of both the farmer and the townsman. The work may be left in the hands of competent volunteer committees or employed trained executives. Many times the discussion of economic problems may lead to specialized agencies eventually incorporated as business enterprises. A diagram of the community club plan is given on page 129.

In the diagram various projects are suggested for the committees on economic improvement and social welfare. It must be understood that the club should not necessarily undertake all of these projects. The list is submitted merely as suggestive of different possible activities. Not all of them should even be considered by the club. The two committees in consultation with the executive committee should decide on possible and prac-

tical projects, which should then be discussed in the public forum. If the club members should decide that a certain project should be undertaken, the responsibility for its initiation should be entrusted either to a special committee of the club or to an independent organization formed for the purpose of carrying on the definite activity. In the latter case the club would act as a promotional rather than an administrative agency, and would turn its attention to the consideration of other needs. Care should be taken to promote the kind of project that can be carried on successfully, since its success will give greater confidence and insure a more enthusiastic response to the next enterprise.

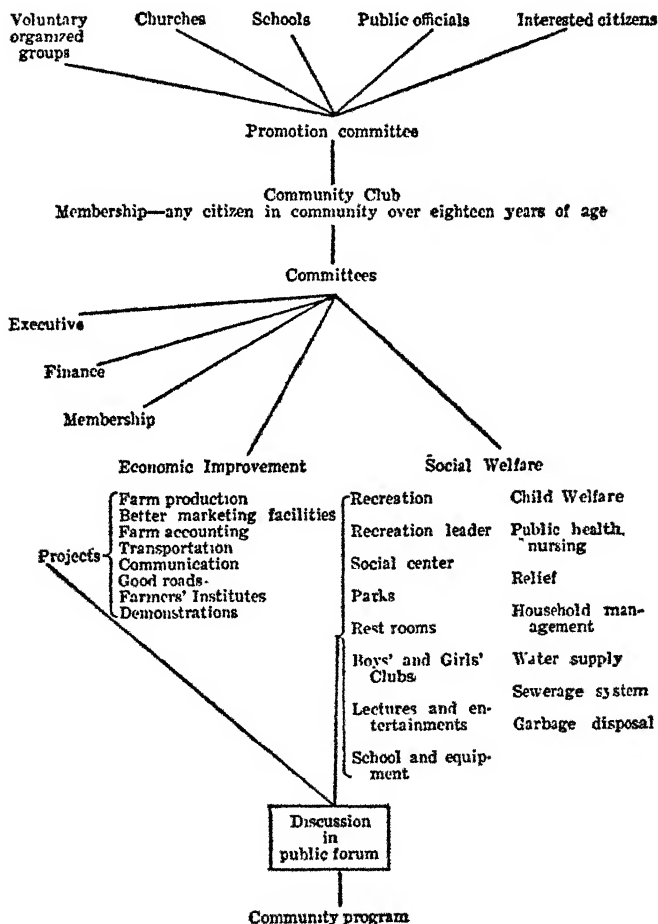
2. The Community Council Plan

The community council²¹ is a representative form of organization. It can best be used when there are a number of active societies in the community, each working in its own way, but with no coöperative program and often duplicating one another's efforts. The executive board of the community council should consist of one or more representatives from each organized group and from three to seven members selected at large. The major committees should deal with the fol-

²¹ Morgan, E. L., "Mobilizing the Rural Community," Extension Bulletin No. 23, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Extension Service.

Burr, Walter, "Community Welfare in Kansas," Extension Bulletin No. 4, Kansas State Agricultural College, Division of College Extension

THE COMMUNITY CLUB PLAN



lowing subjects: farm production, farm business, boys and girls, home life, community life, and neighborhood coöperation. The council should endeavor to arrive at a clear understanding of the purposes of each constituent organization, and on this basis determine the field of effort to be covered by each. Responsibility for different kinds of work should be so fixed that conflicts are avoided and the energy of each group is conserved for a distinct service.

The executive board should be responsible for establishing policies and carrying on the business of the council. In addition to the regular officers, there should be appointed executive, finance, and membership committees. The latter might serve as the committee on neighborhood coöperation, charged with the duty of enlisting every rural neighborhood in the area covered by the council for actual participation in the program adopted. From month to month the committees should present reports of local needs as they appertain to their respective fields. These reports should be thoroughly discussed by all the board members. The different projects of a community program, which may be determined after a social survey has been made, should be assigned to the associations whose representatives make up the executive board of the council.

A community secretary may be employed as the executive officer. He may also serve as secretary of any constituent association and as recreation

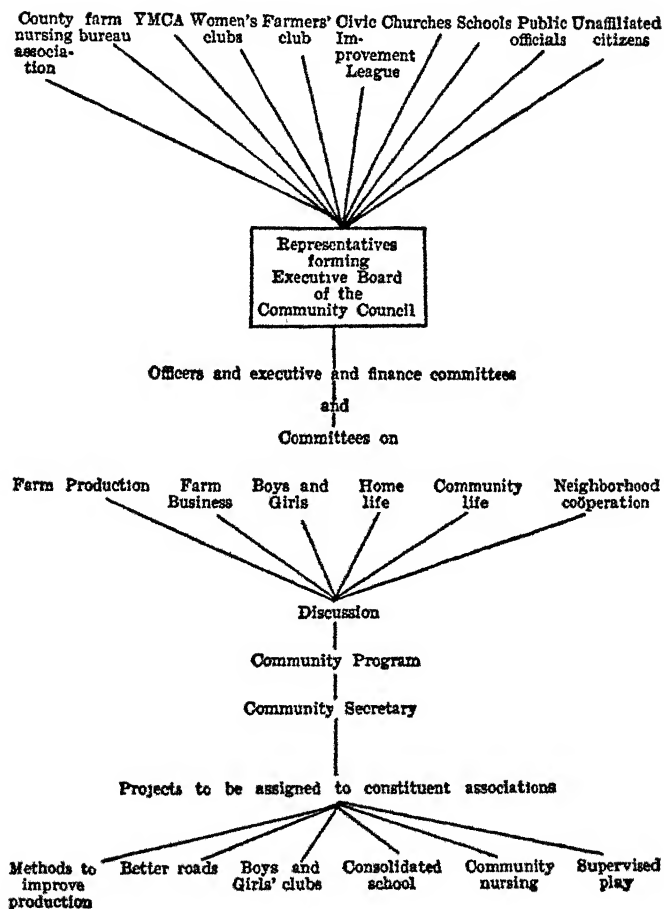
leader. In some communities the superintendent of schools is the community secretary. Open or general meetings should be held every few months. These should be in the nature of community meetings and should consider problems of general interest. Imported speakers should be secured, if possible. All residents of the community should be specially urged to attend the annual meeting, when reports of progress and accomplishments should be made and the work of the coming year explained. A diagram of the community council plan will be found on page 133.

In the last few years, especially since the war, there has developed on the part of many occupational groups a group or class consciousness. The development of this class feeling among the farmers has grown at an astonishing rate, and has been accompanied by a corresponding increase in the number and kind of coöperative enterprises. The individualism of the farmer has found expression in his class consciousness, but at the same time has been modified to the extent of his many successful coöperative associations. It must be noted, however, that the coöperation is almost exclusively limited in its participation to a one-interest group and that the projects undertaken are concerned with the economic life of the farmer. In many communities the activity of the farmer in taking over mills, elevators, and storage plants, and in organizing his own buying and selling concerns, has resulted in bitterness on the part of the

townsman, who hitherto served as the farmer's agent and business man, and has increased the antagonism between the farmer and the townsman.

Therefore, in approaching the practical problem of organizing the rural community, the organizer must be on the alert to discover the degree of coöperativeness existing between the farmer and the townsman, and the reasons for the apparent harmony or antagonism of economic interests. The facts should determine the wisdom or unwisdom of the inclusion of even the consideration of economic projects by the community club or council. Rarely will it be advisable to undertake the administration of economic projects. Ordinarily they can most effectively be carried on by an independent association, which may, however, have been promoted by the club or council. Successful organization is based upon likeness of interests and the recognition of that likeness. No matter how far apart economic groups may be, nor how class-conscious they are, all members of all groups have certain social interests in common, such as education, sanitation, and a wholesome moral environment. Common social welfare cuts squarely across all economic divisions. When the residents of the community have learned to know each other through working out their common social problems, a beginning has been made in pointing the way to a broader and more comprehensive coöperation.

THE COMMUNITY COUNCIL PLAN



RURAL COMMUNITY PROGRAMS

The adoption of some form of community organization to promote and perhaps carry on certain projects not only develops community spirit, but at the same time provides machinery for the exercise of that spirit. The fact that the entire social field is canvassed and that the different social needs are successfully provided for insures an all-round development of the community. Success in one venture opens the way for future enterprises with a valid, businesslike basis.

The solution of rural social problems is more hopefully anticipated because of two sets of facts: first, the increasing degree of coöperation manifested among the rural population and evidenced in the growth of coöperative business enterprises and the voluntary exchange of service, especially in time of harvest (the latter is due in part, at least, to the difficulty of securing sufficient farm laborers); and, second, the appropriation of federal and state funds for the creation of bureaus devoted to the stimulation of interest in agriculture, the improvement of farming and rural conditions, and the extension of expert service to the local rural communities.

The United States Department of Agriculture is continually issuing valuable bulletins on different phases of agriculture and the use of various kinds of crops. These bulletins may be had on request without charge. Governmental experi-

ment stations are opening up new sources of income and more intensive methods of cultivation. Surveys of rural communities are offering first-hand information as to rural living conditions. The establishment of local county farm bureaus has largely been made possible by government appropriations. These farm bureaus, which are sometimes called county improvement leagues, are voluntary associations of farmers and of local residents interested in farming. They are county-wide in membership and interest. Some government money is available for the employment of the county agent, who serves as the executive of the bureau and who is the expert adviser on farming. Any member of the bureau may secure the advice and help of the county agent. In addition to the money from the government, a certain amount is also available from state funds, and in some states the law also permits the county board of supervisors or county commissioners to grant money toward the support of the farm bureau. As a rule, the organization of the farm bureau is promoted by the extension divisions of the state agricultural colleges, and the appropriations, except those from the counties, are handled by the colleges.

In addition to the county agent, some of the farm bureaus employ a home demonstration agent, a woman trained in domestic economy. Her salary is provided from the membership fees of the bureau and governmental appropriations. The

home demonstration agent holds classes in cooking, canning, sewing, and other household arts. She may conduct a child welfare campaign, and either give talks herself or secure speakers on the different phases of the care of the baby and the training of the child.

The fundamental purpose of the farm bureau is to develop economical methods of production and distribution. In some instances it has promoted the organization of coöperative buying and selling enterprises. While it is not primarily a promotional agency from the point of view of social welfare, it coöperates in most helpful fashion with the community welfare association and gives valuable assistance in the development of the local program.

The extension divisions of the state agricultural colleges have on their staffs experts on soils, crop production, animal husbandry, and community organization, as well as women specially trained in domestic economy. Any of these experts are available for consultation on request of groups or communities at the nominal cost of traveling expenses.²² Most of these extension workers spend all or the greater part of their time traveling from one community to another, where they conduct short courses and demonstrations of modern methods as they are related to the farm and to the farm home. Many of the agricultural colleges publish bulletins of interest to the state, hold an

²² In some states there is no expense.

annual rural life conference, and give short courses on the college campus at convenient times, so that the farmer may observe the great experiment stations and the most up-to-date farm equipment.

Some of the states have both an agricultural college and a state university, with extension divisions at each one. In this event, some line of division is usually drawn between their activities. Service relating to agriculture and domestic economy may be rendered by the extension division of the agricultural college. Advice, lectures, and actual organization of the community along the lines of child welfare, social welfare, and business administration, as well as correspondence courses for college credit, may be provided by the extension division of the state university.

In coöperation with the colleges of agriculture, the States Relations Service of the United States Department of Agriculture has developed throughout the country boys' and girls' clubs which have been a great boon to the farm children. The clubs have various purposes and are named accordingly. As a result, many communities have pig, canning, corn, potato, and garment clubs. Their value lies not only in the education in improved methods of agriculture and home economics, but also in the genuine interest developed in production and conservation and the stimulation of the social consciousness of the child. The club gives excellent training in an appreciation of social relationships

and furnishes opportunity for happy social times. It has a direct effect, too, upon the older residents and helps to build up a better community spirit.

The following interesting newspaper clipping sums up some of the features of these clubs:

Until quite recently the title "pig club" might have suggested something in the nature of consumption rather than production; but such is not at all the case with the pig clubs of Georgia, started by the school-boys in 1914. They raise pigs, and last year added about \$500,000 to the wealth of the state. The clubs are numerous. In addition, many of the schools where the children come with lunch-boxes now keep a pig. All told, in less than five years the movement has increased this industry in Georgia by nearly one third, has interested a great many youngsters in a useful employment, and has taught them ideas of thrift and industry that will make them better citizens when they grow up.²²

Many states are making conscientious effort to aid in the solution of the recreation problem. In North Carolina, for instance, the Bureau of Community Service, under the direction of the State Department of Education and with the coöperation of the departments of agriculture and health, has organized (June, 1920) twenty county units which are served with motion-picture films. In each county ten centers are selected and furnished twice a month with a different program of films. At each meeting there are discussions of local problems and a rallying of all the citizens. The state owns the films and pays one third of the local county's expenses, which amount to \$3200 a

²² *Christian Science Monitor*, Boston, Massachusetts, January 31, 1919.

year—\$1500, salary of the county director, \$1200, salary of mechanic, and \$500, expense of operation. In order to raise the necessary two thirds for which the county is responsible, a charge of ten cents admission is made for each person over six years of age. Since the object is to get the people together, the success of the venture is measured by the number attending. If the admission fees do not equal the expense that the community must assume, the service is discontinued.

Many states have traveling libraries, which furnish upon request and for the nominal expense of express charges, books, clippings, collections of various kinds, and pictures.

Rural schools have sometimes formed moving-picture circuits, so that the better films are made available. The Grange and different fraternal and secret societies found in some measure in the majority of communities provide opportunity for recreation and for good fellowship. The Y. M. C. A. has established "rural life engineers" (secretaries in rural communities) in many of the states, and the Y. W. C. A. has also organized societies in rural districts. The Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Chautauquas, and fairs contribute to the recreational resources. During the world war the Council of National Defense and the American Red Cross brought the people together in frequent community meetings. The closer personal contact helped to develop a community consciousness which should be utilized and

not permitted to die, since it is the only satisfactory basis of any permanent community organization.

Community organization in the rural districts may result concretely in the organization of a farm, live-stock, and dairy improvement association. Coöperative buying and selling agencies may be established. Conservation of products may be stimulated. A new school-house may be erected or new equipment purchased for the old building. A library may be built or library facilities arranged for. Boys' and girls' clubs may be organized and various contests arranged. A social center may be developed. A plan for beautifying the community center and the roads and bridge approaches may be adopted. Community celebrations, pageants, field days, dramatics, organized athletics, and supervised play may be promoted.

The employment of a public health nurse, adequate care of needy families, and the protection of neglected, handicapped, and delinquent children may be secured as a result of the stirring up of the citizens through their community association. It does not matter what problems confront the community, their solution can be reached only by the concerted effort of the people who make up the community.

In a rural community the conditions of the town or village center and the conditions of the farm and of the farm home are both the

vital concern of every citizen. The influences of the center will affect the development of the farm boys and girls, whose well-being or social neglect will react upon the development of the boys and girls living in the town. The members of the rural community can not escape the mutuality of their interests.

CHAPTER VI

THE COUNTY PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE COUNTY

WITHIN the last twenty years two very decided developments in social work have occurred. One is the recognition of the importance of the county as an administrative unit, and the other is the demand for organization for social welfare in rural districts. The tendency toward organization on a county basis was given great impetus during the war through the county unit plan of the Council of National Defense and of the American Red Cross. The movement tends to be permanent; witness the peace-time programs of the different national associations and the proposed laws for county welfare boards.

In the United States the county is, as a rule, the taxing agent and also the administrator of the county funds. The county is usually subdivided into townships, which elect township trustees, who serve in a minor executive capacity under the supervision and largely under the control of the county commissioners. In addition, in every county will be found cities, towns, and villages, each with its local government, its independent

taxing power, and its administrative functions. Besides, each county and town bears a certain relation to the state that they help to support, and the state has certain functions it performs either in the minor political divisions or for them. Then, too, in every community, as has already been noted, are many and varied private and voluntary agencies.

In any given community the chief problem may be described as "social adjustment." By social adjustment is meant the securing of a harmonious working relationship of all social agencies, organized groups both public and private, and the citizens generally. To effect the social adjustment of a community is not a simple task, since the problem is the result of duplication of social effort and of ignorance of local social resources as well as of possible social programs. The problem is thus one of organization and administration rather than the creation of additional social machinery. To solve it the local situation must be studied in relation to local resources and to the legal machinery provided by state statutes.

THE IOWA PLAN

What has become known as the Iowa Plan is a distinct effort to coördinate private and public welfare resources into a coöperative and representative agency. The initial experiment was made at Grinnell in 1912. Grinnell is a college town of about 5000. Its citizens had never consid-

ered that a poverty problem existed in their comfortable and beautiful little community. The publication of the financial proceedings of the County Board of Supervisors revealed the startling facts that during 1912 the county had expended in Grinnell from the county poor funds for the relief of the poor in their homes not less than \$8000, while the rest of the county—three times the population of Grinnell—had expended something like \$2000. The county supervisors, upon the suggestion of some of Grinnell's citizens, employed a trained social worker to make a study of the county work in Grinnell. It was discovered that investigations of applicants had been practically *nil*, follow-up and rehabilitation work were almost unheard of, inadequate records were kept, and there was little coöperation between the overseer of the poor and the citizens, churches, schools, and private agencies. Relief had largely been given to families on the strength of uninvestigated appeals. Some families had received aid for years and had come to look upon it as a regular source of income. To meet the situation a plan was advocated that included the employment of a trained social worker who should act in the double capacity of overseer of the poor and of secretary of the local Charity Organization Society, the salary being paid jointly. This plan was adopted at a meeting of the supervisors and the directors of the Charity Organization Society.

The society was later reorganized under the

name of the Social Service League, with a representative board and three ex-officio members, the mayor, the superintendent of schools, and the resident county supervisor. The first year's work showed a decrease in county expenditures for poor relief in Grinnell of about forty per cent. The expenses of the organization were divided, county funds providing for relief and administration and private funds taking care of special needs, such as medical care of school children, hospital care for otherwise self-supporting citizens and for a loan fund. Further coördination and centralization of functions and administration were secured by reason of the secretary's appointment as truant officer and official investigator of all applications for widows' pensions, which are granted by the juvenile court but paid by the county supervisors.

The Social Service League became in reality a "bureau for community service." It promoted clean-up days, playgrounds, a garden club, a health survey, school nursing, the organization of Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, and mothers' clubs or parent-teacher associations, the protection and care of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children (largely assuming this responsibility), co-operation of all charitable agencies during the year and at Christmas, and a coöperative plan of the League and the city for the care of homeless men.

Oskaloosa, Ottumwa, Fort Dodge, Cedar Rapids, Iowa City and Charles City also have combina-

tion plans very similar in general features to that of Grinnell. The financial and administrative details vary. Sometimes the salary of the secretary is divided between the supervisors and the citizens' board, each paying half; sometimes the supervisors assume all of it. In any event public and private moneys are kept entirely distinct and are separately accounted for. The pioneer in adopting a combination plan was the city of Waterloo. The plan was begun in 1905; in 1915 a trained worker was employed; but in 1920 the plan was discontinued.

The Extension Division of the State University of Iowa has played a considerable part in the development and initiation of this form of organization through local surveys and advice and suggestions to the various cities. It has made surveys in other Iowa cities, which have in most instances resulted in improved methods of social service. Definite coördination of social welfare activities has not always meant the combination of public and private relief, either because the county supervisors were not convinced of its wisdom or because they feared they would lose some of their power and influence. As a matter of fact, the combination plan as carried out in Iowa has in no wise interfered with the authority of the supervisors, since the plan is purely voluntary, is dependent upon the good-will of the supervisors, and has absolutely no legal status of its own.

There are certain dangers in the plan. It controls the social welfare situation, and therefore may become autocratic and dictatorial. It may consequently become mechanical. The saving of money instead of the welfare of the families may be made the dominant motive. There is virtually no check on the work of the association, and the secretary may disregard both the board of the central agency and the supervisors, with a resultant loss of interest and support and the disintegration of the entire organization. Its success depends almost entirely upon the personality of the worker employed, but this fact is true of almost any social welfare effort.

The Iowa Plan represents a form of community organization largely untrammelled by precedents or administrative conventionalities. It has achieved some significant results. It has secured trained service for the administration of both public and private funds and the consequent effort to rebuild family life. It has saved money because it has removed from support by the county those families that can and should provide for themselves. It has resulted in the installation of charity organization methods in the administration of public relief. It has made possible a more effective execution of the juvenile court and widows' pension laws. Perhaps its greatest contribution has been the stimulation of the community to a consideration of other problems and the development of needed social resources, such as

dental, children's, and tuberculosis clinics, larger recreational facilities, and school and public health nursing.

Community organization in accordance with the Iowa Plan presents four difficulties: (1) The plan is not being systematically promoted by any agency, and as a consequence there are only seven cities in which it has been adopted. Seven cities represent a very small percentage of the incorporated towns and cities of the state. (2) In each of the seven cities the local board has attempted to work out policies of administration independently. There is no general state supervisory board or agency, and consequently no centralized state authority that will promote uniformity of standards and of administrative policies or that may be called upon for consultation and advice. (3) The plan is purely voluntary. It depends upon the cooperation of local citizens and the county supervisors. A change in the personnel of the board of supervisors may result in the withdrawal of county support and the abandonment of the plan. (4) While the organization is largely financed by the county, the relief work can not be legally extended beyond the city limits.

Although it is readily granted that local self-government of cities and local determination of policies are desirable and that local autonomy must be safeguarded, on the other hand it is maintained that the principles of autonomy and self-government are not inconsistent with general state

supervision. The situation in Iowa seems to demand an authoritative central state supervisory board. For example, while the cities using the Iowa Plan have undertaken new activities as the needs were recognized, the war brought additional problems. A state board would be of inestimable value in helping to solve them.

The societies operating under the Iowa Plan have had a consistent growth and have made themselves community welfare associations, but they must meet the demand for greater democratic control and a more complete organization of neighborhoods as well as of the community. They must enter the fields of recreation and Americanization if they wish to maintain their place in the social scheme of their respective communities. If they do not, other organizations will be formed, and the multiplication of agencies will defeat one of the principal objects of the Iowa Plan, which is to eliminate duplication in social welfare endeavor.

It may be necessary to revise the plan of organization. Cedar Rapids has definitely faced this problem, and has deemed it wise to adopt a plan of bureau development that is already under way, with family welfare, recreation, public health, and dental bureaus. A children's bureau is contemplated to correlate the work of the juvenile court and that of the Welfare League. Each bureau is in charge of trained workers under the direction of a special committee responsible to the central board. Through the recreation bureau it

is hoped to develop social centers and playgrounds in coöperation with the school board, and to co-operate with the city in the supervision of commercial recreation such as dance-halls, bowling-alleys, skating-rinks, pool and billiard halls.

However, even with a voluntary reorganization under the Iowa Plan, the law of Iowa remains unchanged and will continue to handicap county organization, since the function of overseer of the poor is limited to the city and the township trustees serve as overseers in the rural districts. While the public health work supported by the American Red Cross, by private or by county funds may be county-wide, the family welfare work under the care of trained social workers is limited to the city, except as the supervisors and the township trustees request the social worker to visit families or make special investigations. Again, the granting of widows' pensions and the entire management of the work of the juvenile court, though financed by the county, are virtually separated from the work of the central agency except as some voluntary plan of coöperation is adopted.

In Iowa at the present time, as in various other states, social welfare functions are delegated to the county, to the city, and to the local school board. In addition, the state has certain local responsibilities, and in every city are to be found some privately supported agencies. In attempting to organize the community, the interested citizen must take into account these five administra-

tive groups. The functions are distributed in the manner shown in table on page 152.

When this outline of functions is studied, it is at once apparent that for the county without large cities a county board is the logical solution for the conduct of welfare activities. If attempt is made to organize city boards of welfare, it might easily be possible to have as many as ten separate boards in a county. In the event that a city board is organized, one of two things is likely to happen: either there will be two agencies, a county and a city bureau, or the county will delegate its social welfare functions to the city board with a division of expense. It would seem much simpler to have a county board representative of the entire county, with the trained social workers under the county board and with each separate community in the county organized under a local committee with representation on the county board. Such a plan would make possible well defined policies of social welfare throughout the county and a consistent plan of work. Besides, the county through the tax levy has funds available for use of the *entire* county.

If a county social welfare board were created, coöperation with the city authorities would be feasible. Certain administrative duties might be delegated to the county board, with the expense divided between the county and the city. For example, the county board might very well conduct dispensaries or clinics in coöperation with the

1. COUNTY	2. CITY	3. SCHOOL BOARD	4. PRIVATE AGENCIES	5. STATE
Poor Relief through, overseer of the poor and town- ship trustees Soldiers' relief (Sol- diers' Relief Com- mission) Pensions for the blind (county supervi- sors) Widows' pensions through juvenile court Payment for attend- ant of crippled chil- dren to children's hospital <i>Delinquency</i> County Jail District courts Juvenile court and probation officers <i>Health</i> County physician County hospital County tuberculosis hospital County nurse Relief of quarantined cases in their homes; ordered by city officers but paid by county Aged poor County home <i>Dependent children</i> Detention home or orphanage (care paid by county)	<i>Health</i> through Board of Health Quarantine Sanitary inspection Itousing City physician for emergency cases Hospital care Care of transients who are ill Dispensaries Child or infant wel- fare <i>Delinquency</i> Police courts Justice courts City Jail Police matron <i>Recreation</i> Parks Playgrounds Supervision of dance-halls pool and billiard halls bowling-alleys skating-rinks	School attendance or truancy officer School nurses School physician Physical training Parents Social centers Playgrounds Enforcement of child labor laws	Relief Visiting nurses Employment bureau Registration bureau Settlements Child welfare socie- ties	Factory inspection Enforcement of labor laws Employment bureau Care of insane, defec- tive, and handi- capped groups in state institutions

city, and it might very logically carry on the child or infant welfare work, since public health nurses are now being employed independently or by the county for county-wide work. If a recreation department were established within the county board, the supervision of dance-halls and other places of commercialized recreation might be given over to the county board. This recreation department might also promote the establishment of playgrounds and the opening of social centers. Already in a number of cities the welfare bureau, representing the county and largely financed by the county, takes care of the truancy work for the local school board. The work of private agencies is easily transferred to a county board.

If a law were passed in Iowa creating county boards of public welfare, a provision should be included making the employees of the county board eligible for city work as policewomen, as truancy or school attendance officers for the school board, and as probation officers for the juvenile court.

With reference to the small city, it would seem that the problem of administration of social welfare functions might be solved by a proper organization of the city government, especially under the commission form of government, rather than by the creation of a new city department or a city welfare bureau. Undoubtedly the city would wish to maintain and should maintain its separate board of health to take care of quarantine, sani-

tary and housing inspection, and emergency calls for physician and hospital care. The police department and public safety department are, of course, regular activities of the city administration, but parole and probation work for police cases might be carried on by workers of the county board who are already dealing with a variety of family problems. A department of parks and recreation seems a logical part of the city government, especially since the city has the power to purchase grounds for parks and boulevards, and to improve and maintain them. This department might, however, to the advantage of all concerned, work in close coöperation with the recreation bureau of the county welfare board.

To make the work of the county boards effective should their organization be made possible by law, there should also be created *a state board of public or social welfare*. Such a board would co-operate with the state board of control and relieve that board of certain duties. The state welfare board could take over the supervision of all privately supported children's institutions and of all child-placing, whether done through the courts or by private agencies; the visitation of county homes, jails, and hospitals; and supervision of all county boards of welfare, requiring from them complete reports, so that the entire state might learn the social status and social welfare of all communities, large or small.

The experiment in Iowa has been valuable not

only in the actual results as obtained in the seven cities in which the Iowa Plan has been in force, but also in its demonstration of the needs and possibilities of the state as a whole.

Voluntary combination plans have been initiated in other states—Kentucky, Ohio, and Wisconsin. Usually, as in Iowa, they have been built around the administration of relief and have branched out into other fields as the work with needy families revealed them.

ORGANIZATION IN CALIFORNIA

California has been developing a form of organization that goes a step farther than the Iowa Plan. The county in California is charged with financing and managing county charitable, correctional, and health institutions and activities, including county outdoor relief, the almshouse, the jail, the detention home, and the hospital, and with employing the county physician and health officer. California also has a county system of public schools and courts. The State Board of Charities and Corrections is empowered to investigate and standardize not only the conduct of county institutions, but also the methods for the disbursement of public funds for the care of the poor in their own homes. The law of 1917 requires county supervisors to investigate and supervise families aided from poor funds and to keep records on forms prescribed by the state board. This law opened the way for the state

board to conduct local surveys, which would not only give a basis for local organization, but would also serve to educate the community to local needs and ways of meeting them. The state board's policy may be summed up as the effort "to socialize public relief." It is believed that this is possible, since public aid has an advantage over private agencies "in the possibilities of wider outlook and ability better to correlate the community needs with the community resources."

The plan evolved is the creation of an unpaid county welfare department, whose work is administered by paid trained social welfare workers. The fundamental purpose is always the same—"so to administer the county relief funds that dependents shall be restored eventually to self-support, or in the case of the permanently disabled, given proper care. The key-note is prevention of dependency, disease, and delinquency."

After consulting with the Board of Charities and Corrections and with the local citizens who are interested in social work, the county board of supervisors appoints the members of the department. A typical welfare department consists of two supervisors and five representative men and women. To this department as a county center are referred all social questions involving the employment, health, recreation, and moral welfare of citizens, as well as the material relief of the poor. It has been found a very useful piece of social machinery. The members should represent the entire county with its several viewpoints of nationality, religion, and locality. The department usually begins its work with one paid trained worker, who acts as executive secretary, makes investigations and supervisory visits, develops plans for social rehabilitation, and keeps complete records of such work. In larger counties a child welfare worker (preferably a trained nurse) is em-

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ployed in addition to the executive secretary. Other workers are added if conditions demand.

Some of the duties and powers of the county welfare department include (1) investigation, determination and supervision of county aid given to persons applying for the same, and the devising of ways and means of restoring them to self-support where possible; (2) coöperation with the juvenile court, probation officers, and probation committees, and service as a coördinating agency for all relief and welfare societies in the county which may care to avail themselves of it; (3) investigation and supervision of family homes where children are boarded away from their parents, standards of such investigation and supervision to be in accordance with those required by the Board of Charities and Corrections; (4) maintenance of a modern system of social records of the county dependents, such records to be used as a confidential exchange by workers (in counties where there is no other "confidential exchange" maintained); (5) coöperation with the other county departments for care of dependents, sick, or aged; (6) coöperation with the social agencies provided by the state.

The state board advocates this plan of county organization as being a modern democratic means of bringing together the county officers and the citizens for the betterment of local conditions; the plan provides for sharing the responsibility of caring for the unfortunate. It keeps the responsibility for county funds where it belongs—with the board of supervisors—but it draws to the supervisors the personal support of the unpaid group of citizens forming the department, the thought, the strength, the best judgment of the whole community.²⁴

COUNTY CHILD WELFARE BOARDS IN MINNESOTA

In Minnesota the law provides for county boards, but they are limited to a consideration of the problems of child welfare and are called County Child Welfare Boards.²⁵ According to the population of the county, these boards consist

²⁴ De Turbeville, Esther, "2 x 5 County Relief," *Survey*, July 19, 1919, pp. 604-605.

²⁵ See State Board of Control, Report of Children's Bureau, 1918.

of three or five members appointed by the State Board of Control. The county superintendent of schools and a member of the Board of County Commissioners serve *ex officio*.

The County Child Welfare Board is an official agency of the county and its functions are the following:

1. The coördination of the work of all private agencies, the supplementing of inadequate efforts or the providing of additional efforts.

2. The enforcement of all laws affecting the welfare of children, such as those having to do with the juvenile courts, children born out of wedlock, and crimes committed by and against children.

3. Supervision, in coöperation with the State Board of Control, of maternity hospitals, infants' homes, child-helping and child-placing agencies.

4. Coöperation with the juvenile court and probate judges, county attorneys, and other public officials, especially in the investigation of county allowances.

5. Investigation of foster homes for children for the Children's Bureau of the State Board of Control.

The employment of a trained agent by each board is recommended. About forty boards had been established in 1918, and the results of their work are reported as being "very encouraging." The criticism seems valid that they are too limited in scope, since the problem of the child is only one

of the problems of the home. Social work can be adequately done only as it revolves around the home and considers all problems in that relationship.

COUNTY WELFARE BOARDS IN NORTH CAROLINA

The legislature of North Carolina passed some noteworthy legislation in 1917 and 1919 in the creation of a State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, with power of investigation and supervision of the entire state system of charitable and penal institutions. The state board is empowered to study non-employment, poverty, vagrancy, housing conditions, crime, public amusement, care and treatment of prisoners, divorce and wife desertion, the social evil and kindred subjects, together with their causes, treatment, and prevention.

The board is also charged with the duty of studying and promoting the welfare of the dependent and delinquent child, and empowered to provide directly or through a bureau of its own creation for placing and supervising dependent, delinquent, and defective children. No person, institution, or organization can care for or place children without a license from the state board, and a license once granted may be revoked for good reason. The law also provides for a trained investigator of social service problems to serve as a state commissioner of public welfare. The state board is expected to encourage counties to employ

a county superintendent of public welfare, and is required ²⁶ to appoint in each county a County Board of Charities and Public Welfare, consisting of three members, who serve without pay. The county board is to advise with and assist the state board in work in the county and to make such visitations and reports as are requested. It will also act in a general advisory capacity to the county and municipal authorities in dealing with dependency and delinquency, distribution of poor funds, and social conditions generally. The county commissioners and the county board of education are jointly to appoint the county superintendent of public welfare, whose salary shall be fixed and paid jointly by the said boards.

The county superintendent of public welfare shall act as school attendance and probation officer of the county. He shall also, under control of the county commissioners, administer the poor funds. The county superintendent of public welfare is the agent of the state board within the county, and, under the direction of the state board, is required to supervise persons discharged from hospitals for the insane or from other state institutions, as well as prisoners paroled from penitentiaries and reformatories. He is also charged with the promotion of wholesome recreation in the county and with the regulation of commercial

²⁶ The law was amended in 1921 so that the appointment of the county board is made optional in a few of the sparsely populated counties.

amusement. In counties of less than 25,000 the county superintendent of public instruction may be appointed superintendent of public welfare, but no person shall be appointed who does not have a certificate of qualification from the state board.

In counties where there are cities already having a local board or other social agencies or wishing to establish such, the governing bodies of such cities may make arrangements with the county commissioners to consolidate the work under the authority and supervision of the County Board of Charities and Public Welfare as may be mutually agreed upon, with such division of expenses as may be equitable. The governing bodies of such cities and the county commissioners are authorized to make such provision for the expense of carrying on the work as they may deem advisable, and may delegate to the County Board of Charities and Public Welfare the necessary power.

The foregoing explanation of the North Carolina law has been taken from the law and follows its wording very carefully, much of it exactly.

The North Carolina Plan has attracted much attention. It is the culmination of the movement to put social work on a county basis. It gives definite legal status to a board of citizens serving without pay, and provides by law for a combination plan such as in Iowa is purely voluntary. The legal establishment of the board with its definite powers insures greater stability. The law

also provides for a definite relationship between the county and the state boards. The *Bulletin* of the state board has expressed the ideal toward which the plan tends:

The county boards should seek to unify, correlate, and develop all the local agencies and mobilize the whole community in the work of providing wholesome living, working, and recreational environments. The churches, the schools, the organizations of all kinds, should be encouraged to lend a helpful and coöperating hand in the work of making over our communities. Local pride is a worthy feeling. The time has come when it should be given a new impulse, one which seeks to call out the best in both the business and social side of life—a better mobilization and direction and expression of the social, moral, physical, and spiritual forces of the community, which too much lie dormant. Suppress the bad by drawing out and developing the good.²⁷

THE MISSOURI PLAN

North Carolina has set a high goal in actual legislation for county boards of public welfare, but Missouri outlined in her proposed Children's Code of 1918 what seems to be the most nearly ideal plan for county boards yet articulated. The excellence of the Missouri Plan is due to (1) its logical development out of the present legal background; (2) its provision for all three functions, administrative, supervisory, and promotional; (3) its correlation of local work not only with the state board of charities but with all the different state departments; (4) its insistence upon trained service and the extension of this service into rural communities; and (5) its adaptability and flexi-

²⁷ *Bulletin*, State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Vol. 2, No. 1, 1919.

bility to conform to local conditions. The last item is most important. Ordinarily laws provide for the general and not the exceptional cases. It is always most difficult to devise a law that shall be uniform for the state and at the same time permit of a degree of variability.

Missouri has a State Board of Charities and Corrections. The state industrial home for white girls and the one for negro girls, the reformatory, and the state penitentiary are under a state department that controls these institutions and that also passes on pardons and paroles granted by the governor. The eleemosynary institutions, which are the hospitals for the insane, the colony for feeble-minded and epileptic, and the state sanatorium for tuberculosis, were by the law of 1921 placed under the charge of a board of managers. However, all these institutions are under the supervision of the State Board of Charities and Corrections.

In the county the charitable and correctional work is administered by the county court, composed of three judges elected by the people. The county court in Missouri is not a judicial body, but corresponds to what in other states is called the county board of supervisors or commissioners. The county court is the administrative county authority. Within limits, it determines the tax levy and expends the tax money. It dispenses county funds and grants mothers' pensions and relief to persons in their own homes. It is also responsible

for the conduct of county institutions. The Missouri law does not provide for an executive officer to serve under the county court, which is its own administrator. The court, together with the county health officer whom the county judges appoint, act as the county board of health. The circuit court may act as a juvenile court; and must appoint a probation officer, so that every child who becomes the ward of the court may be under the care of a probation officer. Any one may be appointed.

The present law provides that the circuit court may, and upon petition of fifteen reputable persons shall, appoint a county board of visitors, consisting of six members who serve without pay. This board has supervisory powers only. It has power to inspect county institutions and recommend improvements. It may also inquire into the conditions obtaining in the administration of outdoor relief. The county board of visitors makes a regular yearly report to the State Board of Charities and Corrections regarding local conditions, and may enlist its coöperation in effecting needed changes.

In presenting the law for county boards of public welfare, The Missouri Children's Code Commission pointed out that there were three separate sets of officials dealing with the problems surrounding children and the home, each working independently: (1) the superintendent of schools, who employs his own truant officer; (2) the juve-

nile court with its probation officers; and (3) the county court, which deals with family relief and mothers' pensions, and so does most positively influence the child's life.

This analysis of the legal background for social community effort in Missouri reveals the great need of coördination. The Children's Code bill was designed to meet this need. It recommended the appointment of a county superintendent of public welfare by the county court from a list of eligibles submitted by the State Board of Charities and Corrections. This superintendent was to act as the executive agent of the county court, working under its immediate supervision as well as under the supervision of the State Board of Charities and Corrections. The appointment was made optional and not compulsory, which is very wise, since it insures the adoption of the plan as a result of the development of local public opinion and does not force the issue before the community is ready for it.

The duties of the county superintendent of public welfare were outlined as follows:

1. To administer relief funds and allowances to mothers.
2. To discover neglected, dependent, defective, and delinquent children, and obtain for them the benefits the law guarantees.
3. To act as agent for the state board in finding foster homes for children and supervising them after they are placed.

4. To give oversight to patients discharged or paroled from hospitals for the insane.

5. To act as agent for the prison board, especially as parole agent.

6. To assist the state free employment bureau in finding work for the unemployed.

7. To act as agent of the factory inspection department in enforcing the child labor laws.

8. To act as truant or school attendance officer.

9. To act as probation officer upon appointment by the judge of the juvenile court.

10. To investigate causes for distress and make recommendations for the improvement of conditions.

The Children's Code bill finally proposed to change the name of the County Board of Visitors to County Board of Public Welfare, and to make the superintendent of public welfare secretary of the board. These provisions were the ones that gave the Missouri Plan its preëminence. It proposed to retain the administrative body, the county court, to give it a trained executive, and at the same time to provide for an independent body to supervise the county work. Then, by a masterly device, it would make the trained executive of the county court the secretary of the supervisory board, thus to a large degree insuring the carrying out of needed reforms of administration. The County Board of Public Welfare was to be independent of both the state board and the county court as far as the appointment of its

members was concerned, since it was created by the circuit court. At the same time it would work with both, since it would report conditions to the state board and also to the county court. The plan, once put into operation, would tend to put both the county court and the county board of public welfare on their mettle to make the county administration as efficient as possible.

The proposed law also provided for city boards of public welfare which might make coöperative arrangements with the county. City boards could be created and receive appropriations from the county for the administration of the county work within the city limits. City boards of public welfare could receive and disburse private funds. In this way the plan virtually provided for a combination of public and private agencies within the city. Its chief weakness was that, while it stipulated that the county court should fix and pay salaries of county superintendents within certain specified limits dependent upon the size of the county, it did not state that a certain definite appropriation or tax levy should be made for the work carried on by the superintendent. Such a provision, if incorporated in both the laws providing for county superintendents of public welfare and for city boards, would prevent the handicapping of activities through the possible niggardliness of a county court or of a city council.

Although the proposed law was presented at three successive general assemblies, each time it

failed. However, the legislature of 1921 passed a law providing for county superintendents of public welfare to be appointed by the county courts at their discretion. The duties are the same as outlined by the Children's Code bill, but the provisions for a list of eligibles determined by the State Board of Charities and Corrections was eliminated. The legislature also failed to pass the bill that would make the County Board of Visitors the County Board of Public Welfare, and the county superintendent of public welfare the secretary of this board. The law, as passed, falls short of the ideal given expression by the Children's Code Commission, but marks a distinct step forward.

WELFARE BOARDS IN KANSAS CITY AND ST. JOSEPH, MISSOURI

The first board of public welfare in the United States was established by city ordinance in 1910 in Kansas City, Missouri. In 1908 the common council established a board of pardons and paroles, which consisted of three members appointed by the mayor. A year later the administration of the workhouse was intrusted to it, and in 1910 the number of the board was increased to five and its powers were enlarged. This larger board was the Board of Public Welfare and was empowered "to devise and execute plans to fulfil the duties of the city toward all the poor, the delinquent, the unemployed, the deserted, and un-

fortunate in the community, and to supervise the private agencies which solicit from the public for these purposes."

The Kansas City Board of Public Welfare conducts a municipal farm for men delinquents, a women's reformatory, a parole department for the supervision of discharged and paroled prisoners, a free legal aid bureau, factory inspection, a department of censorship and recreation which studies and supervises commercial recreation, a loan agency, and a department for homeless and unemployed, including the municipal rock quarry. It does not handle outdoor relief, nor is it organically connected with the police department or the juvenile court. The care of the sick poor is in the hands of the city health department. A privately supported agency, the Kansas City Provident Association, with a staff of trained social workers, makes all investigations of applicants for relief and provides whatever is needed.

The powers of the Kansas City board have remained virtually the same, but reductions in appropriations have materially lessened its activities. While politics have not prompted the appointment of the members of the board or influenced its administrative policies, they have affected the appropriations and eventually the personnel of the administrative staff. The activities that have been discontinued include housing investigations, an employment bureau, a confidential registration bureau, a social service depart-

ment, vacant-lot gardening (later taken over by the board of education), and the promotion of social center meetings.

Perhaps the fact that the Kansas City board was created by city ordinance and that its members are appointed by the mayor renders its situation rather precarious, since it is entirely dependent upon the city administration.

The Social Welfare Board of the city of St. Joseph was created by act of the state legislature in 1913 and is financed by city and county appropriations. "The cardinal principle of the law is the centralization of work for dependents in one board for the specific purpose of constructive philanthropy as opposed to temporary relief, the restitution of individuals and families to self-support and productive citizenship as opposed to dependency and pauperism." The board administers all relief work formerly in the hands of the county court and the Charity Board, a city board for the relief of the poor. It also provides for the relief of the sick poor, formerly cared for by the city board of health. The latter continues its inspection and care of infectious or contagious diseases. The Social Welfare Board may and does receive and disburse private relief funds.

To carry out the purposes of the law, the Social Welfare Board has an investigation bureau which inquires into the causes of poverty as well as the needs of all applicants for aid, and through its relief bureau not only extends prompt and ade-

quate assistance but seeks to uncover or develop such resources as will enable the families to become permanently self-supporting, if that is possible. A registration bureau is maintained for the use of citizens and social workers. Within ten months after its organization, 4307 individuals, 5.3 per cent. of the entire population, were registered either as being in need of some kind of social service or as having received it.

The employment bureau has been a practical and efficient agency through the coöperation of citizens and employers. Through the legal aid bureau free legal advice has been given to those unable to pay for it. "Litigation has been forestalled and family troubles settled by consultation with the advisers of the department. The main idea, as in all other departments, is the prevention of poverty by timely aid and service." The clothing department collects and distributes clothing and shoes without cost. The research bureau has made some valuable studies, including one dealing with the causes of poverty and another one concerning the homeless man. Through the volunteer service department citizens may give of their time and interest in visiting families and serving as friendly visitors. The board is charged with providing for the burial of the poor whose relatives can not be located and whose bodies must be interred by the public. For the sick poor the board maintains a dispensary and provides a physician for calls in the homes, free medicines,

and if necessary hospital care. In addition, the hospital social service department secures for the patient ready to leave the hospital convalescent care, medical aid, employment, or transportation to his relatives, as the occasion arises. The Visiting Nurse Association coöperates generously with the board and furnishes free nursing care in their homes to patients cared for by the medical service department of the board.

CHAPTER VII

PLANS OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS AND OTHER SPECIALIZED AGENCIES

THE AMERICAN RED CROSS

1. Home Service Sections

Soon after the United States entered the war and men in great numbers were inducted into the army, virtually every community found itself with a variety of family problems demanding solution. The increased cost of living, the departure of the bread-winner or of one who contributed materially to the family income, the pressure of added responsibility laid upon the wife and mother, the confusion of family plans, and the natural bewilderment resultant from the war experiences necessitated some kind of action on the part of the citizens in order that normal living standards might be maintained. The problems of rent, clothing, employment, control of children, and health of the family were intensified by discouragement, fear, and sorrow growing out of the entrance of a loved one into active service.

When the government made provision for allotments and allowances to the families of men in

service and for a low rate of insurance and for compensation for disabilities or death in service, some plan had to be initiated that would take the information direct to the family and offer aid in filling out the necessary papers. The American Red Cross established the Home Service Department, a branch of the Civilian Relief Department, to meet the emergency, and mapped out a comprehensive plan of organization. This plan provided for a Committee on Civilian Relief in each chapter. All work for and with the civilian population belonged to the Committee on Civilian Relief. When fully organized, it embraced two sections—one dealing with disaster relief, and the other with home service. The work of the home service section was originally confined to the care of the families of men in any branch of service in the United States Army, of the families of men and women in hospital units, of families of Allied forces living in this country, and the families of civilians wounded or killed as the direct result of war activities. The aid rendered included grants of money, loans, medical aid, help in securing employment, advice and counsel.

In many Red Cross chapters the Committee on Civilian Relief and the home service section were identical in their membership. In this case the committee was known as the Home Service Section. If the home service section was a sub-committee, the executive committee of the larger

civilian relief committee served in the same capacity for the home service section and formed the nucleus of its membership.

The general instructions sent out from Red Cross headquarters suggested that the home service section should have a membership representative of the various business, professional, and social work interests. Field representatives from the different division offices were sent to the chapters, which were somewhat tardy in organizing their home service sections, to urge organization and to suggest methods. Very often these chapters were in the smaller towns and the rural districts, and until the visit of the field representative had not appreciated the existing need for home service.

Usually the sections as organized were made up of from five to nine members, and included a physician, an attorney, if possible a man acquainted with military and naval affairs, a business man, a public-spirited woman, and sometimes a minister and the school superintendent. If there were a trained social worker in the community, he was also asked to serve. Some communities had a small home service section of from three to five members which transacted the business of the section, and in addition a consultation committee of people engaged in various kinds of social work. All problems of family treatment were referred to this committee for its advice as to the wisest

procedure. The consultation committee also endeavored to promote coöperation among the social welfare agencies of the town or city.

Home service has noteworthy accomplishments to its credit. To a large degree it carried out the principle of adequate relief; it demonstrated the availability and practicability of volunteer service and the possibilities of a nation-wide scheme of social service advertising. Through the latter it spread the preachments of organized charity and of scientific social service to the remotest village and rural community by a business-like method of education through letters, newspaper articles, bulletins, chapter courses, and institutes for the training of home service workers, and visits of, and conferences with, field supervisors.

However, as a matter of fact, the original program of home service was regarded with more or less skepticism by many trained social workers, and the whole scheme as something "socially heretical." Its undeniable success raised many questions as to its future. What use could be and would be made of such a nation-wide social welfare movement? Would it be "scrapped" at the close of the war? Would the social enthusiasm it had engendered be dissipated? Would the lessons it had learned for its own improvement and those it had taught be speedily forgotten? After the armistice was signed a committee was appointed to report on the future of home service. This report was presented at a meeting of division

directors in Washington in the spring of 1919, and, after a thorough discussion of all its features, adopted as the peace-time program of the home service department.

This program divides itself into four parts: (1) the continuation of its initial work—the constructive care of the families of soldiers and sailors; (2) help for the returned soldier; (3) the extension of this care to other families in communities where there is no other organization to provide for them, and consequently the conversion of the home service section into a community agency for the care of all disadvantaged families as well as for such other coöperative community enterprises as baby or child welfare campaigns; and (4) disaster relief.

Immediately upon the publication of the report of the committee, a storm of protest and criticism arose. Many people felt that the Red Cross had stepped outside its proper field and that its entrance into community organization would result in confusion and failure. No one denied, however, that the home service of the Red Cross had opened the eyes of many people to social problems which, they had been surprised to find, were the same kind of family problems that they had refused to see in their communities and which, they were forced to realize, had existed for many years. As a result, the people themselves had demanded that certain standards should be maintained in the administration of home service work in order

to extend effective help. As a logical consequence, they began to measure local social conditions and social service agencies against the newly discovered standards. Inevitably changes in the organization of local social resources resulted and will continue to result. The American Red Cross has been at the very center of this community awakening, and has been keenly aware of the great need for community organization, and also of the absence of any national agency equipped to undertake the task; hence the peace-time program.

In a book on community organization it would seem wise to include an analysis of this new and very important policy of the Red Cross. As the program is considered, two questions present themselves: (1) What does the plan offer and mean to the community? and (2) How is the Red Cross carrying out the scheme? In reality both of these questions revolve around the problem of administration and constitute two phases of it, one dealing with administration from the point of view of the community, the other with administration on the part of the Red Cross.

When the division officers undertook to organize home service sections in all of the chapters, they sent their field representatives to meet with the boards of the local chapters. At this meeting the Red Cross representative presented the home service program and, in the words of the traveling salesman, endeavored "to sell" the idea. True, the community needed the "commodity,"

and the home service committee as organized was representative of the community; nevertheless, the program was more or less imported, and the plan as adopted was largely of one pattern. It is a commonplace that communities differ in many of their social aspects, and it necessarily follows that any community program must be adapted to the local needs. Therefore, if the chapter through its home service section should desire to extend the scope of its work and become a centralized community agency for social welfare, its plan of operation must be based upon local needs and designed specifically to cover them. Otherwise, the extension of home service to embrace community welfare projects can have no lasting place.

The community program can not be run into a prescribed mold. It must be flexible, elastic, and as varied as the communities. It must be dynamic and have within itself possibilities for future development, or it will become fixed, static, and eventually cease to operate. Besides, the plan must have the support not alone of the Red Cross chapter officials but of all the citizens, and it must come as a result of the community's own interest. This rock foundation is absolutely essential if the superstructure is to stand. However, it must be kept in mind that the local chapter continues only as long as the people demonstrate their wish to have it by the payment of the yearly dollar membership fee or contributions; that membership is not limited, but open to every one in the com-

munity; and that the plan of organization provides for the election of officers and board by the members.

As outlined, the peace-time program provides that home service will not be made a community venture unless the local chapter expresses such a desire. However, almost unconsciously and inevitably the moral force of the Red Cross program tends to swing the chapter in that direction. This possibility is not necessarily to be censured, since undoubtedly the need for community organization is the most pressing of all social needs. The American Red Cross has the prestige, the money, and the coöperation of the people to enable it to carry out the program, provided suitable workers can be secured. The directors of the Red Cross realized that to do so effectively there must be available a staff of community organizers to undertake local social studies, to map out community programs, to conduct educational campaigns, and to arouse the community to support its own organization. To meet this need there was established in each division under service organization a department of community study service. Since twenty-eight hundred of the thirty-six hundred chapters are in counties having no towns of more than 8000 population, and since more than seventy-seven per cent. of Red Cross work is in agricultural territory, the communities that will ask for organization service will be small cities, towns, and rural districts. To work with these localities

effectively requires an acquaintance with the problems, needs, and resources of rural or nearly rural districts.

The adoption by the Red Cross of a peace-time program of rural community organization is particularly significant. In the first place, it is a national body and can therefore develop and put into operation more or less uniform and standardized methods; it stands back of the community with its corps of field workers, and is always available for advice and positive assistance in emergencies of organization or service.

One other feature of the peace-time program must be considered. Will the home service section, expanded into a community agency for social welfare, remain an integral part of the Red Cross? The prospectus outlining the peace-time program indicates that local initiative and responsibility should be developed; that the home service section as enlarged should ultimately become autonomous and free from Red Cross connection, if such is the desire of the community, since it is recognized that the fullest measure of local autonomy is both necessary and desirable. This policy is the only one consistent with the spirit of modern community organization, which is primarily democratic and which is based upon the principle of self-government. The primary task of the Red Cross is to demonstrate to the community the possibility of coöperative and organized service. Until the different states have established state

and county boards of public welfare, there is a crying need for some agency, preferably a national one, to initiate organization and promote plans for community and social welfare.

2. *Community Nursing*

Not only has provision been made for a home service section in each chapter of the Red Cross, but the plan of organization has also provided for a section on nursing service, formerly called the Town and Country Nursing Service. It has three objects: the promotion of public health nursing; the establishment of classes in home hygiene and care of the sick; and the encouragement of girls to take training as nurses. The nursing service department has also issued a peace-time program whose purpose is to put a Red Cross nurse in every county for public health education and supervision. Nurses are recruited by the Red Cross, and only those nurses who have both the regular nursing and social service or public health nursing training are eligible.

The expenses for the nurse's salary and for any other items of administration are met by the funds of the local Red Cross chapter until the demonstration of the need for the nurse and the value of her work makes possible the appropriation of local public funds or the organization of an independent local public health nursing association.

The sections on home service and nursing serv-

ice coöperate in carrying on their respective programs. There is no conflict of interests. If the community can support only one of the two projects, a social service worker or a public health nurse, the local chapter, with the advice of the division office, decides which is the most vital at the time.

With its machinery in motion, the Red Cross chapter has a decided advantage in organizing, financing, and carrying forward different types of community activities which may later be taken over by local independent agencies organized for the purpose, or which may be continued by the chapter with its assumption of greater freedom in initiating its own policies and with a larger measure of local autonomy.

3. Organization of the Chapter

The methods of the American Red Cross in organizing a chapter furnish valuable suggestions for any community organizer. It is the general policy to organize the chapter as a county unit. Subsidiary units are known as branches. Each branch has jurisdiction over a population center, usually embracing one or more townships. This plan insures organization of the entire county. The governing body of the chapter is the executive committee, geographically representative of the chapter jurisdiction. Various sub-committees are charged with the administration of the various

projects. The branch duplicates the chapter form of organization, with an executive committee and sub-committees.

Chapter activities may include public health nursing, classes in home hygiene and care of the sick, in dietetics, and in first aid; home service for former soldiers and their families, the extension of this service to civilian families; the organization of auxiliary or volunteer service; junior auxiliaries of Red Cross in the schools; and the development of a community welfare program in coöperation with the other social agencies in the county. It is the policy of the Red Cross to encourage local chapters to undertake various forms of community service. Accordingly chapters have undertaken such projects as health centers, clinics, rest-rooms, salvage stores, recreation and playground activities, hot lunches in the schools, medical inspection and health crusades for school children, Americanization classes, baby camps, and community centers.

Before the chapter undertakes a community program the division office must be consulted. The field representative is called upon to make at least a superficial study of the community in order that the chapter may be advised intelligently. The Red Cross does not wish to duplicate effort or to initiate a project simply because it is popular. In some instances the Red Cross has made a community study resulting in a coöperative and comprehensive community plan. Such a community

study has led to the organization of a community council of which the Red Cross chapter has served as a constituent member.

To carry on a peace-time program, the chapter is urged to secure a trained executive secretary. This worker is a trained case worker, but also must act as a community organizer, since upon him or her will devolve two tasks—the organization of the branches within the chapter's jurisdiction, and the organization of the chapter itself as a whole for effective service. There is a third task, which is the development of definite plans of coöperation with other agencies.

Some noteworthy results have been attained in the organization of rural communities. While social problems are largely the same whether in the city or the country, the methods and the approach to the community vary somewhat. In the country or rural districts social work with families and individuals must be more or less informal in method. Relationships are closer than those in the city, so that unusual care must be taken not to give occasion for gossip. Investigations require the greatest tact and delicacy. In country districts family problems involving inadequate income often center around the lack of credit or the lack of skill in agriculture.

The outstanding problem of the rural district is the almost total absence of a community spirit and of aggressive and active leadership in bringing the community together both for good times

and for the discussion of mutual interests. Therefore it has come about that a large part of the rural worker's time must be devoted to the development of local community associations or clubs modeled after one of the plans already outlined as the community club and community council forms of organization.

The rural service department of the Red Cross, national headquarters, published in August, 1920, a bulletin entitled "Rural Work Stories." The following excerpt is made to show the method of organization, the type of activities carried on, and the personnel:

CLARK COUNTY (OHIO) CHAPTER

Springfield, Ohio, a city of 60,840, is the chapter headquarters for Clark County Chapter (population, outside of Springfield, 19,888). This chapter has jurisdiction over the entire county.

The home service chairman in Clark County says that "the need for rural organization was brought to the attention of those who were active in campaigns for war-chest and Liberty loans." They realized that the small communities had no all-inclusive organizations through which these committees could work. A chapter conference early in 1919 may have added the conviction of the need of recreation in these communities, for the chapter began a search for a recreational leader. The man whom they employed, Mr. Royal Clyde Agne, came in October, 1919, as a "rural community organizer" (because that capacity would give to the work a broader basis than recreation alone).

At present he has eighteen communities organized. The organization is community-wide, and membership includes practically everybody—with privilege of voting restricted usually to those over a certain age. Constitutions are elastic and are not even adopted until the club starts. In some clubs there is a very low membership fee; other clubs "have not come to that" and occasional collections pay expenses.

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The clubs meet monthly in the most suitable community building available—a hall, a school-house, or a church.

The procedure which the organizer followed involved the following steps.

1. An informal path-finder survey to determine "the need and spirit of the community" and the securing of a mailing list.
2. Invitations to each family to:
3. A community rally with a planned program—free discussion and a vote on the advisability of holding similar events in the future.
4. The nomination by the audience of a steering committee with whom the organizer works.
5. Finally, election of officers and a constitution.
6. Regular meetings, including entertainment, discussion, and plans in regard to popular community needs, as the community determines.

The organizer emphasizes health in two ways. "Laugh and be well," he says.

There is something of an entertainment nature in each of the club meetings. The programs have included, besides music and pictures, readings, travelogues, lectures, plays, and mock trials. The last two, as well as the community sings, are home talent productions which make up the program once a month or so. He has arranged entertainments at the county children's home, the county infirmary, and at the tuberculosis sanatorium. He has secured outside talent from Springfield, the headquarters city, and from outside the county. The clubs choose from among the talent available. In the past year the entertainment has been financed out of the Red Cross budget for the rural work, but plans for next year include a group of entertainments which each community shall share on a self-supporting basis.

Committees on athletics have organized men's baseball teams in eleven communities. These teams are federated into a County Athletic League, with a regular schedule of games. The organizer, through the committee on boys' activities, has helped organize Boy Scout troops; in the same way girls' clubs have been organized. The organizer has secured the help of the city Y. W. C. A. in leading these girls' clubs.

Besides promoting enjoyable and healthful recreation, the organizer has emphasized the importance of health by securing a nurse to give classes in home nursing to eleven different

groups, organized by the nursing committees of the various clubs.

Seven circulating libraries, secured from the state and city, are passed from one community to another. Township bands were organized last winter in several communities and supplied with an itinerant instructor. The best of the players formed a county band.

The business of the clubs is run by the officers and members, the organizer supplying information and service, not control.

At first the business meetings were halting because the people were reticent, but the entertainments and the habit of getting together overcame their reserve, and business meetings showed more and more initiative and tendency to cooperate on community projects.

Street lights in villages, improved train schedule, provision for avoiding dangerous railroad crossings, a summer vacation school that happened to be a Bible school, a playground, a picnic in which one community entertained neighboring communities—all show the individuality of the ways in which the newly awakened community spirit has displayed itself.

Other organizations have been stimulated rather than hindered. The Y. M. and Y. W., both hitherto exclusively city organizations, have asked for something to do in the county.

Publicity, which from the first has been sane but consistent on the part of the organizer, is becoming more and more spontaneous on the part of the people.

In the spring of 1920 the clubs federated. In August the chapter "Board of Directors," which had always been made up of city people alone, was persuaded to add to its numbers a group representing this Federation of Rural Community Clubs.

The rural work in this county has served as an inspiration and prototype for counties in various parts of the division.

SUMMARY

Extension (rural)—October, 1919

Personnel:

Rural community organizer

Instructor nurse (four months)

Two band instructors (part time)

City staff

Home service secretary

Dietitian

Approach to rural communities, "community rallies"

Projects:

"Organization" of communities

Monthly meetings—entertainments, discussion, and business

Home nursing classes

Boy Scout organization and meetings

Girls' clubs

Township and county bands

Baseball

Library extension

Picnics

Civic projects.²⁸

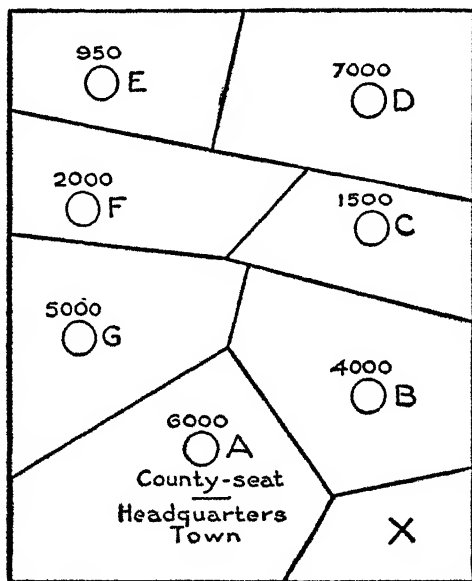
As a result of the varied experiences in different parts of the country, some general conclusions have been reached with regard to organizing counties of different types. The premise is laid down that organization should follow community lines; that it should concern itself with that which naturally constitutes a unit—the trade area. This policy means that township lines and city limits are more or less disregarded for the larger social and economic unit of town and adjacent country. Three types of counties will be considered.

Type I

A county of Type I has several towns of almost equal size, such as A, B, D, and G. Usually in such a case there exists a considerable degree of town jealousy, which must be taken into consideration by the organizer. There are comparatively few counties of this type. Branch jurisdiction and organization should follow community boundaries. Otherwise no organization should be at-

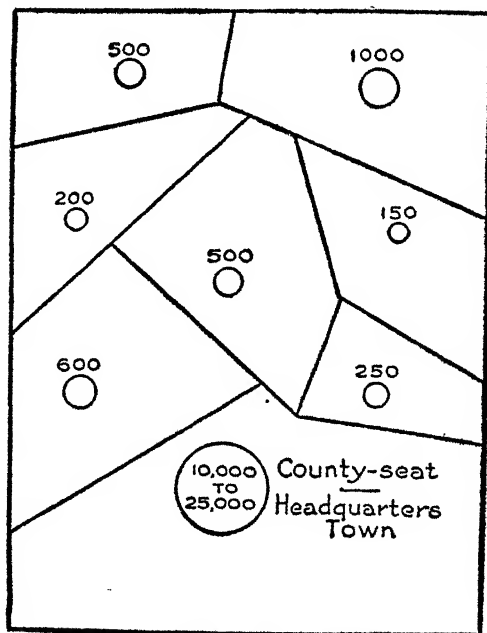
²⁸ See appendix for other reports.

tempted. The organization plan should endeavor to make each town equally important. Care should be taken that each is represented on the executive committee, and that the headquarters town should have a branch organization like the others. Often in practice the branch officers of



the headquarters town are identical with the officers of the chapter. Such a course should not be followed in this case. Each branch should have its separate set of officers. It would be wise to hold executive committee meetings in the various places in turn, though for administrative purposes the chapter officers should be located prefer-

ably in the headquarters town, which is usually the county-seat. The plan of activities for each small community should be determined only after a study has been made of each population unit and of the county as a whole.



Type II

In a county represented as Type II there is one large city, which dominates the county. Clark County, Ohio, whose organization has been described, is a county of this type. The city is the trade center for practically the entire county. The few or numerous small towns have few lead-

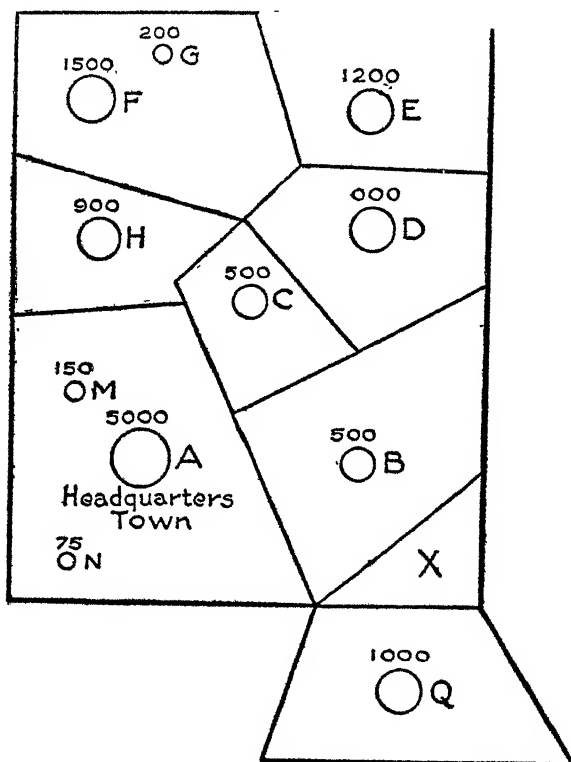
ers, not many or varied community interests, and not a great deal of money available for a community program. The people of these small towns and villages and of their surrounding country may be organized into community clubs, which may or may not be known as Red Cross community clubs. Their interests are civic and recreational, and they may institute classes in home hygiene and care of the sick and in other subjects. Ordinarily, under the Red Cross plan, the smaller unit contributes some money to the funds of the county. The community organizer is employed by the chapter; he organizes the smaller communities and supervises their activities, giving advice and counsel and help in securing talent for programs. The major part of routine activities are centered in the city. The separate communities take care of all actual expenditures for their recreation or community gatherings and contribute something to the work of the chapter as a whole, thereby feeling a closer affiliation with and participation in the work of the county organization. All funds are kept in chapter headquarters. All community clubs are represented on the executive committee.

Type III

Type III represents a county with one larger town, several smaller ones, and several villages. A, B, C, D, E, F, and H will be able in all probability to support branch organizations. The villages G, M, and N would logically come under

the jurisdiction of the nearest branch, to which they already belong in a community sense.

One question that has arisen in connection with



county organization, when it is made to follow community lines, is—what shall be done with a group of families represented by X, whose trade and social center is Q in an adjoining county. The Red Cross has decided that by common agree-

ment the membership and activities may be shifted to the adjoining county. This plan should be followed, however, only after a careful canvass of the citizens in the X neighborhood and after consultation with the executive committees of both chapters. The decision should be reached on the basis of what the people themselves want. The final answer to the question should take into account the activities in B and those in Q. Organization of X should be assigned to Q only after a thorough study of the local situation and after the division representative has given such advice. It is more than likely that X may be brought closer to B by proper study and careful planning. If it is at all possible to achieve such a result, the effort should be made and the county kept intact as a unit.

A COMMUNITY HEALTH ASSOCIATION

Besides the American Red Cross, the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, with headquarters in New York City, state health, and state anti-tuberculosis associations are promoting the employment of trained visiting and public health nurses and the organization of the community in the interest of public health. In some states the state anti-tuberculosis society has trained workers who may be secured to make a local survey and give demonstrations of the value of a school nurse or a community nurse.

Mass-meetings, conferences, lectures, and surveys may precede the actual organization. The executive board should be composed of representatives from all organized groups. Membership should be open to all citizens for a small fee. Committees should be appointed on child welfare, sanitation, education, and community health. The committee on child welfare could coöperate with the United States Children's Bureau in its different baby-saving campaigns; organize classes for the instruction of mothers in the care of their babies, open milk and ice stations; and organize simple and informal clinics for free medical and dental service. The committee on sanitation could develop a plan for the regular collection of garbage at small cost; agitate the matter of a sewerage system; in coöperation with the local board of health and the state food and dairy commission, inspect groceries and meat markets or other places where food is sold, to insure compliance with the state laws; and patrol streets and alleys and enlist the property-owners in a concerted action to make and keep them clean. In coöperation with the city school, the committee on education could arrange for classes in home nursing and dietetics to be given in the school auditorium by local physicians, nurses, or the domestic science teacher. It might also present plays or pageants dealing with the subject of health. The committee on community health could conduct

clean-up and anti-fly campaigns and coöperate with the local board of health in enforcing the quarantine laws.

Until the public health nurse, who would be the administrative agent of the association, is secured, the administration might be left in the hands of the executive board and the various committees. After her arrival the nurse would carry out the details of the educational health propaganda, school nursing or home nursing as the policy of the board dictated. The committees should be retained, however; their volunteer work should be continued, and the association should institute other needed social reforms, such as the organization of a social service bureau, better sanitation, better housing, and possibly even a summer camp for recreation purposes for all the people of the district.

A COMMUNITY RECREATION ASSOCIATION

The same general plan of organization as already discussed for the community health association should be followed for a community recreation association. The board should be representative and membership unrestricted. The income from membership fees may be augmented by individual voluntary contributions and appropriations from the school board, city council, and county commissioners. If the board decides to undertake the erection of a community house, a campaign for funds will be necessary. The building

should be carefully planned, but no plan should be adopted until all the organizations have expressed themselves as to their support of the project and their possible use of the building. In some small towns a new city hall is so designed that it will serve as a community center. In other communities memorials to the soldiers who served in the world war are taking the form of community houses. The building should provide for a gymnasium, which could be used by the school if the school has none; club-rooms; auditorium; library; offices for the farm bureau, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A. and public health nurse; dining-room and kitchen. Not only must the budget provide for the building and its furnishings and equipment, but it must also provide for a caretaker and without fail for an executive secretary, who should be a trained recreation leader, preferably a man. The effective use of the building will largely depend upon the secretary. The building may be used for institutes, lodge and club meetings, parties, concerts, lectures, and various other community affairs. In some rural communities the community house is so constructed that the basement may be used for live-stock sales and shows and farm exhibits.

If it is not possible to secure the necessary amount for a building, or if local facilities are adequate either in the schools or other buildings, the recreation association through its membership might raise a budget to secure a recreation

leader who should devote all of his time to promoting and conducting community gatherings, clubs, classes, institutes, and parties. The employment of a community recreation leader makes possible provision for boys and girls who have dropped out of school, especially those from fourteen to twenty-one years of age, and for all those people who have few or no social connections through church, club, or lodge. Besides conducting recreational and educational work for boys, girls, men, and women, the association might promote a library, community nursing, a consolidated school, or a hospital, according as the need presented itself.²⁹

A CHAMBER OF COMMERCE PLAN

The Chamber of Commerce of St. Louis, Missouri, has undertaken a most significant piece of work through its bureau of production—the organization of chambers of commerce or commercial clubs in small cities and towns within its trade area, southern Illinois, Missouri, northern Arkansas, and eastern Oklahoma and Kansas.

²⁹ Community Service Incorporated, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City, grew out of War Camp Community Service, organized for the promotion of recreation programs in war-camp cities. The Playground and Recreation Association of America is in reality responsible for both developments. Community Service Incorporated has its offices and employees in various sections of the country, and on request makes recreational surveys, plans and organizes recreation associations and recreation programs to be financed by city or school district, conducts institutes or short courses for recreation and playground leaders, and demonstrates the possibilities of different kinds of recreational activities.

Organization of the community follows trade-area lines, and brings together in one organization business men of the town, farmers, and public-spirited women. Membership is acquired on payment of an annual fee, which varies with the community, but which is rarely under ten dollars.

A local steering or organizing committee canvasses the community to arouse interest. A community banquet is planned, and at this meeting formal organization takes place. The desired budget is from \$4000 to \$5000. Young business men of St. Louis, members of the Junior Chamber of Commerce, are being trained for local community service, and receive an initial salary of from \$1800 to \$2400.

The organizers from St. Louis keep in touch with the local association and consult the executive board as to its program. The board of directors is composed of both men and women representative of the community. Five committees are suggested: (1) civics, (2) production of raw material, (3) promotion of industries, (4) transportation, and (5) commerce, which has to do especially with credit facilities.

The erection of a community house is one of the possible projects presented to the board. The law in Missouri makes possible the grant of \$1000 from state funds to any county undertaking to build a community house as a memorial to the soldiers who served in the late war. The remainder necessary may be raised by a county bond

issue or by public subscription. One small town of 1100 people in northwest Missouri, in which a Chamber of Commerce has been organized, has decided to build an \$85,000 community center which will furnish office room for the county agent and the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, an assembly-room or auditorium, and a room in the basement for live-stock sales, shows, institutes, and farm demonstrations.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY

THE APPROACH TO THE COMMUNITY

UNDER whatever organization he serves, the community secretary will undoubtedly approach his community with many ideals, dreams, and—doubts. He³⁰ is confronted by some very practical questions: What shall he do first when he gets off the train? What shall be his method of approach to his board and to the community, step by step, until he has arrived with his board at a definite program? These questions are serious matters and early mistakes are not always easily remedied.

Granted that no hard-or-fast lines can be laid down, it is certainly true that suggestions of procedure, which may be modified and adapted, are often helpful. In the first place, before going there the secretary should endeavor to acquire as much information as possible about the community: its exact location, population, geography, history, its relation to other near-by communities and the type of community it represents. In ad-

³⁰ In this discussion the masculine pronoun is used, although in the majority of cases the community organizer will be a woman.

dition, if possible, he should learn what publicity, if any, has preceded his coming. Above all, he must start out with no preconceived notions as to *exactly* what he will find or what he will do.

After acceptance of the position and when the date set for his assumption of duties is near, he should write a note to the chairman or secretary of the executive board, stating the time of his arrival. He will probably be met at the station and assistance will be given him in finding living quarters. A time should be set for an informal conference with the chairman. At this interview the chairman should be encouraged to do most of the talking and so give the newcomer some ideas of the plans of the board, the place the organization occupies in the community, and the general spirit of the community. He should then suggest that the chairman take him for an informal call on the different board members, so that he may meet them before the board meeting, which should take place within four or five days or a week. During this interim he should endeavor to learn what active work has been done by any committee, and should talk with the committee chairman about the kind of work, its volume and method. In case an office has been open and any of the workers have been retained, a visit should be made to get acquainted with the worker, his methods, his ideas, his mistakes, the details of the organization machinery, and the personnel of board and committees. At the same time the new secretary can

observe the office arrangement and equipment and go over the records.

As much time as possible should be devoted to a brief study of the community: first, a ride over as much territory as possible, to get the general contour of the community and its good and bad superficial aspects; second, interviews with the county agent, commercial club secretary, community social service worker, community nurse, presidents of local clubs, town and county officials; and third, visits to as many different parts of the community and to their respective leaders as possible (especially necessary for county work). This brief study will give a general idea of organizations and of the points of view of various community leaders as to the needs and possibilities.

The first board meeting should be as informal as possible. Sometimes it is advisable to have it in a private home, oftener at the office if there is one. The occasion should serve as a "get acquainted" meeting. The new secretary will be asked his impressions. He should avoid being too definite and should endeavor to postpone his talk until he has secured from the board members their plans for the organization and has learned from them the degree of organization or unorganization that exists in the community and county. He should then speak briefly of the need for, and possibilities of, community organization, taking care to give to the board three ideas: first, that he is

not to be an office man but a community organizer; second, that he can do nothing except as the board and the community whole-heartedly support him; and third, that he would not presume to advise as to a local program until he knows more about the community. Later he should ask the board to help him in making a more complete study of the community and suggest another board meeting in from two weeks to a month.

A simple announcement of the secretary's arrival should be given to the newspaper, but care should be taken that no hasty or premature statement is made concerning the future activities of the organization.

At the second meeting of the board the secretary should be able to report, at least briefly, on each part of his territory and on the community as a whole, and to map out what he considers the best plan of organization and activities.

Often the secretary must carry on some form of daily work while he is making the community study and determining his method of procedure. Usually it will consist of the routine matters of the office or of some type of welfare activity. If the secretary is a social worker employed by a county welfare bureau or by the Red Cross, the daily task will include giving information, advice, and actual aid in solving family and child problems; the conduct of clubs and classes; perhaps talks to different women's and professional associations. If the secretary is a public health

nurse, it is possible that arrangements have been made for her to conduct school inspections and examinations of school children or to do home nursing on call.

THE OFFICE EQUIPMENT OF A COMMUNITY ORGANIZER

The office of a community organizer for a county association should be near the center of the town that serves as headquarters for the county. It should have at least two rooms, in order that a private interviewing-room may be available. Besides the desk, table, and chairs, there should be a couch, and while the rooms should be businesslike in appearance they should be made as inviting as possible. The office furniture should be of good quality and substantial, and should not be simply discarded relics from attic and barn. Various files will be necessary. Always there will need to be accurate financial records, letter files, and a card-catalog membership file giving name, exact address, telephone number, and the name of the community in which membership is held. In addition the office must have a confidential file of the records of the individuals and families to whom some information or social service has been extended. Sometimes the agency may maintain, for the confidential use of all local social agencies, a simple card catalog of all families who receive any kind of social service. Each card should contain the name and address of a family, the number of children with each one's name, sex, and age,

and perhaps some additional family information, together with the name of the social agency interested. Such a file is known as a confidential exchange. It is successful in its promotion of coöperation only as all agencies dealing with families or children regularly submit reports and in turn are notified whether or not other agencies are also interested. This very simple but practical exchange of information will prevent much needless and expensive duplication of time and money.

A folder for each town or community within the county should be kept, and should contain clippings from the local papers, lists of activities, dates of meetings and events, records of local plans and enterprises, and the names of the elected officers of the local board. It is important that the secretary should not trust to his memory for the names of people who have contributed special services; therefore a personnel file will be most helpful, and should contain the name, address, and particular talent of the individual, and also of available speakers, singers, song-leaders, instrumentalists, band-leaders, game, club, and physical directors, parliamentarians, and teachers of special subjects such as manual training, domestic economy, English. Another file that will be found useful from the point of view of community organization will be a card catalog of all organizations, county-wide or local, with the names of officers and data regarding activities and interests. There should also be in the office

map of the county with roads, towns, school-houses, churches, and other items of social interest indicated by symbols, colored tacks, or other graphic method. A bulletin-board in the central office, duplicated if deemed best in the auxiliary offices, for clippings and notices, will be found very useful. Charts and exhibit material, pictures, and slides should be kept ready for circulation throughout the county.

Regular office hours should be scrupulously kept, and posters indicating where the office is located should be placed in the depots, post-office, court-house, city hall, library, and other public places. Whether or not there is an office in each section of the county, there should be an active executive committee, together with a secretary whose business shall be to keep the activities alive. The name of the local secretary and his or her address should be posted in prominent fashion, so that any one needing advice or help will know where to go. The county secretary should visit each town as often as possible, and should keep in close touch with it, stimulating, advising, and encouraging all local effort. Each subdivision must be made to feel the heartfelt interest of the secretary and his appreciation of all the projects carried on.

As many people as possible should be kept busy. Volunteers may be used in both the central and the sectional offices. They should be given the kind of tasks that dovetail with their individual

interests. Occasional conferences of volunteers from all parts of the county will help to bring communities together and stimulate county feeling. County workers should come together both for work and for play through rallies, community picnics, athletic contests, and community sings. The test of the success of community organization is the degree of *consistent*, not spasmodic, activity that results, and the coöperative spirit manifested.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

(1) The principles of community organization grow out of the basic fact that, to accomplish the task of creating strong community spirit and of fostering genuine coöperation for a common aim, the community itself must see its needs and work out the solution of its problems. The community secretary or organizer should aid and direct, but not control.

(2) The executive board must help to work out a program and must assume responsibility for it. The secretary must keep his board solidly back of him from day to day, and should undertake no venture until the board has signified its indorsement of the plan. The board should stand sponsor for the secretary, and should introduce him to the "key" people of the headquarters town, and should also through its members help him as he undertakes the organization of each section of the county or territory under his jurisdiction.

(3) The executive board must be thoroughly representative of the whole community, be it town, city, or county. It must be democratic in composition and not the engine of any one clique. It should have a goodly representation of business men. It is a mistake to permit a community organization to become known as a "woman's organization."

(4) The plan of organization and the program of activities must be adapted to the local situation and must supplement the work of existing agencies instead of attempting to supplant them. A new separate organization should not be promoted if the work it is designed to carry on is already being done or if there exists an agency that is capable of expanding its work to include the needed activity.

(5) In determining the program the needs and interests of all parts of the community must be considered.

(6) All parts of the organization's jurisdiction—neighborhoods, rural districts, lesser towns and villages and cities—must be assiduously cultivated both for active effort of their own and for participation in the work of the larger unit.

(7) Not too much should be attempted at once. A simple project should be undertaken and put through to gain confidence, to demonstrate success, and to give a foundation for a larger and possibly more pretentious effort.

(8) As many people as possible should share in

the actual work. The secretary must not attempt to carry the whole load, even though he thinks he might handle any particular job more efficiently than the person to whom it is assigned.

(9) Any effort at organization should make use of clubs and agencies already formed, and the organizer must never forget to manifest appreciation for all local enterprises.

(10) Publicity must be systematically promoted. Papers in all parts of the community should be utilized. People need education in regard to social programs, and, more than that, they want to know what is being done. Besides, a community organization belongs to the people and they have a right to know about it. Informal sociability will help much in the extension of publicity and of the influence of the organization. *It is imperative that the association be established in the minds of the people.*

(11) A centralization of community effort through a community council or other joint scheme should come only as a result of a natural closer drawing together of agencies. It should never be forced. Neither should any one agency attempt to absorb other associations. An actual disbanding of agencies and their absorption by an existing society should come about only through an earnest conviction that the one agency can do its work so well that it logically should assume the combined task.

(12) Finally, the organization must be demo-

cratic in membership, in election of executive board, in control of policies, in the nature of its activities, and in the conduct of its program.

THE TREND OF ORGANIZATION

Back of all the varied experiments in community organization is a rather vague philosophy, which is slowly crystallizing as first one and then another pioneer organizer carries out an experiment. There has been much futility in social work, largely because of the inability to strike the vital spot in a given problem of social organization. This situation has been due in part to a lack of the right kind of training. A new type of training must prepare social workers to appreciate the social field as a whole, and to correlate all types of work so that they operate as smoothly as parts of one machine. There has been too much competition among societies in a given community for funds, for confidence, for influence, and for power. In one community of about 800,000 population, for example, are between forty and fifty agencies that are dealing primarily with the individual or the family, that are classified as "case-work" agencies, and that do not include those organizations whose first concern is the conduct of an institution.

One of the more recent forms of community organization, developed first in the big city and copied by smaller ones, has been the financial federation growing out of the recognized need for

coöperation rather than competition, and perhaps also out of the givers' feeling of irritation and bewilderment at the vast number of appeals for funds for philanthropic purposes. By means of this plan the budgets of all participating agencies are submitted voluntarily to the scrutiny of a central representative committee. The estimated amounts for the coming year are then passed upon, being reduced or increased as the exigency demands. The amounts agreed upon are pooled and a campaign inaugurated to raise the combined sum. The result has often been an increase in funds available and also in the actual number of contributors. The very natural sequence of the financial federation has been the welfare federation, through which social service agencies are linked together for the purpose of coöperatively meeting the city's needs, of standardizing methods of work, and of educating the citizenship to appreciate and support the program of the constituent organizations.

As a result of actual and varied experiences a new technique of community organization is being slowly developed. It applies the principles of social diagnosis used in individual case work to a given community. It studies the community just as the individual case is studied. The worker using this new technique first analyzes the community, and from the analysis constructs a logical plan of treatment. He will make use of his imagination just as does the skilled surgeon who has

thought out every possible complication before he makes the incision, who is then prepared for any emergency, and is quick to adapt his plan of operation and to make an instant adjustment to conditions as they are revealed. Social workers have too often decided upon a plan of organization or a policy of administration because it has succeeded in a certain instance, forgetting what the surgeon constantly remembers—that every case is unique.

We may develop the parallel between family social work and community organization in positive fashion, since the community, after all, exists only by virtue of the fact that it is made up of individuals, and of those individuals in families, and of those families bound together by a common environment. The approach to the family must be made with sympathetic interest, and will be successful only as the family's point of view is understood. The approach to the community must be made in an appreciative spirit, and must result in an understanding of the community's point of view, its temper, or its spirit. A satisfactory solution of the family's problems is possible only on the basis of an investigation into the family's needs and resources. In the case of the community this investigation is called a survey or study. A family plan of rehabilitation involves the enlistment of the family's interest, initiative, and positive self-assertion, the utilization of known resources, the development of unsuspected

resources, and the application of these forces to the solution of the particular problem. A plan of community organization must be based upon the interest, initiative, and positive self-assertion of the community as a unit, the intelligent use of known resources, the development of others, and the definite application of these assembled resources to eliminate the community inadequacies.

The analysis of the subject of community organization has revealed certain pressing needs and certain well defined tendencies that seem to prophesy a decidedly revolutionary type of organization for the future, and that may be tabulated as follows:

1. The need for some machinery through which community spirit when once aroused may express itself.

2. The need for rural work—the extension and adaptation of modern social methods to solve rural social problems.

3. The more democratic participation of the people in welfare activities.

4. The organization of readily accessible groups of people either by blocks or neighborhoods and eventually of the community as a whole.

5. A closer relationship between the people and the experts in various social fields.

6. Coördination and combination of welfare activities, both in financial and administrative operations.

7. Flexibility of organization to meet local

present needs and to provide for those of the future.

8. Centralization, so that the problems of health, of relief, of recreation, of child welfare, of housing, may be correlated into one all-inclusive and continually expanding program.

9. The demand for the public's assumption of responsibility for social problems, and the creation of a legal or governmental agency for the administration of welfare projects that shall be representative of the people and that shall be financed by taxes and not by the generosity of the few.

One fact of fundamental significance must in large measure fashion the plan of organization—the necessity for the employment of professional social workers. In small communities some one citizen or group of citizens will often voluntarily assume leadership and give almost unlimited time in voluntary service. In the large city or a county including many miles of territory and many thousands of people, volunteer service may be found and should be utilized; but the extent of the problems and the large amount of detail make it imperative to employ trained executives. The smaller city and the rural community are also recognizing the possibilities of the trained social worker and are working out plans that make feasible his employment.

As has already been stated, because different people have different reactions to the local social

situation, a variety of agencies results. In the big cities, with hundreds of organizations, many interested in much the same type of problems, families may be visited by a probation officer, a truant officer, a representative of the board of children's guardians or of a children's aid society, by the overseer of the poor, the district visitor of the charity organization society, a friendly visitor from a charitable association, a representative of the big brother or big sister agency, a settlement worker, a visiting, a tuberculosis, a baby welfare or public health nurse, a state agent from any one of a dozen state institutions, a state-parole agent, or a probation officer from the city or district courts.

The importance of the family from a sociological standpoint, the necessity for its preservation, and an appreciation of its unity, have apparently not been consciously considered in relation to community organization. The problems of poverty, of neglected childhood, of ill health, of economic maladjustment, of crime, of recreation, are focused in the family. The problem of the child can not be solved without an understanding of the family. The ill health of any member of the family can be understood only in relation to the home and the family circumstances. It is difficult to understand why social workers have so long been blind to the fact that social problems are in reality one—the adjustment of individuals living together in society. The unit is the home,

and the adjustment must establish the home and the family so well that the individual is master of his own destiny. The far-seeing executives of public health nursing associations have realized the complications from over-specialization, and are beginning to advocate generalized public health nursing in which the public health nurse performs for any family in her district any or all of the services of the former bedside or visiting, tuberculosis, and child welfare nurses. The social worker, too, must visualize the possibility of a more generalized service.

Besides the great number of agencies whose interest centers in the family are many organizations with similar purposes but no mutual understanding of fields and policies, so that duplication or a waste of effort is not uncommon; for example, agencies to promote recreation, special kinds of education, health, legislation, civic improvement. Social workers have divided the social field into a variety of constituent parts. Sometimes the division seems almost too minute. The policy has resulted in divorcing vital elements that must be brought together again in a normal social scheme.

Social workers have up to the present largely failed to understand the importance of utilizing volunteer service. Many of them frankly say that it is too uncertain, too difficult to train, and too troublesome to waste time over. Such a policy is extremely short-sighted, anti-social, and undemocratic. As a matter of fact, social work as or-

ganized at the present time is neither democratic nor to any marked degree preventive. On the contrary, it is largely aristocratic, paternalistic, and palliative. Social problems will not be solved until the social conscience of the people is so thoroughly stirred that social justice will replace philanthropy. How can that ideal be realized? People may be aroused to excitement and tears over the *recital* of social inequalities and suffering, but they will be aroused to action much more quickly when they *see* suffering and distress and misery, when they come in actual contact with social conditions as reflected in the individual case. Volunteer service provides the opportunity. Social workers should use every possible device to enlist all the volunteers possible and to keep them at work. An extensive and intensive volunteer service in all fields of social welfare, under the direction of trained workers, would serve to bring citizens and experts closer together and give wider participation to the public.

The ideal of social work has sometimes been defined as social justice, which is only another way of expressing true democracy. It means economic and social opportunity for all men. Since social justice is still only a dream, the social worker is seeking by various plans of social service to help the individual attain a better social position by removing the obstacles that society has not removed and that the individual can not remove. In order to make social service democratic the

people must organize, control, and finance it. The form of organization should have a legal status and constitute a part of the governmental machinery that the people themselves have set up for the use of every one. It should be supported by tax money. The form should be flexible enough to adapt its program to any given locality, but similar enough to plans in operation in other communities of the same state to conform to general state-wide standards of administration. It should combine within the purview of its activities all social service functions and should be administered by trained social workers. Finally, it should have, in addition to its elected board, an advisory board composed of citizens selected by a representative but disinterested agency, such as a judicial body or court.

Such a plan should fit into the present general scheme of government, and is none other than the county board of public welfare—established by law but voluntary by adoption. It is the provision through legal means of a combination plan adaptable to any community. It represents a form of federation and unification, the utilization of all local forces, the consolidation of agencies with related functions, and the centralization of welfare activities in such fashion that duplication is avoided and social energy conserved for the initiation of preventive reforms. It does not destroy individual initiative, but sets it free for the realization of enlarged visions. It gives trained serv-

ice for the handling of all problems in city or country and is representative of the people. It is supported by tax funds and answerable to the people for all expenditures.

The importance of organization of the smaller units within a given territory to support and carry through community projects must be recognized. In larger cities the utilization of some form of block or neighborhood organization is necessary to bring into the city the more complete social coöperation possible in the village and smaller town. In counties or rural districts, also, the neighborhood must be organized and related to the larger community unit. The people should come together in some more or less definite organization to discuss their common problems and devise methods for improvement. Such a group may study, understand, and promote the activities of local institutions and agencies; it may take a proprietary interest in a board of public welfare and it may promote civic programs for its own immediate neighborhood. When, however, the question of dealing with individuals and families arises, the group should yield place to the trained social workers and their volunteers.

On the other hand, it must be conceded that the organization of the small neighborhood and community clubs or units will be successful in large measure only as there is constant stimulation, which must be supplied through a central agency if it is to effect any concerted community-wide

program. A welfare board should by all means make use of neighborhood and community units. In order to be permanently successful a county welfare board must develop local coöperative groups in all the centers of population within the county, which should sustain some definite relation to the central or executive board.

One somewhat revolutionary suggestion seems pertinent—the legal grant to boards of public welfare of *functions*, such as enforcement of school attendance laws; probation and parole work for juvenile, police, and district courts; administration of poor relief; promotion, supervision, and conduct of recreational facilities. Such a policy would dispense with the provisions for a variety of officials, and would make it possible to divide a given community into small units in charge of an employee of the board authorized to fulfil any function demanded. Under the voluntary combination plan and even under the county welfare board laws, one individual may be appointed to several different positions. Usually, however, the appointments are made by different officials or official boards, and may or may not be made. If because of some personal prejudice or antagonism an appointment is withheld from the trained social worker, the duties of that particular office may be inadequately performed or neglected. Under the plan suggested the social field would be unified, the social worker brought closer to the families within her district, and much duplication

avoided. It would then be easily possible to organize the people of the neighborhood or community with representation on the central board. Altogether such a plan would in no uncertain way speed the community on toward the realization of its ultimate goal—the welfare of every man, woman, and child within its boundaries.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it may be said that citizens will find that the simplest plan and the one that most nearly meets the needs of their own community will have the elements of permanency. Any plan of organization should be based on a survey of actual conditions and should be adopted only as it carries the support of all the citizens. Any legislative program for county boards of public welfare should likewise be adapted to local state conditions and legal background. Always it must be kept in mind that the welfare of the people who make up the community is the only *raison d'être* for any plan of organization. The democratic consideration, promotion, and support of social welfare projects are always desirable, even if the detailed administration of those activities affecting the family most intimately must be delegated to trained executives. Any welfare agency is the creature of the community, and can exist only as long as it represents the people and retains their sympathetic support. It should be always the servant and never the master.

APPENDIX

TYPES OF SURVEY SCHEDULES
SYMBOLS FOR NEIGHBORHOOD SURVEY
EXTRACTS, "RURAL WORK STORIES"—
AMERICAN RED CROSS (RURAL SERVICE)

TYPES OF SURVEY SCHEDULES

Form 1 (see page 227) was used in a town of about 8000 people in making a church census. The survey was planned and directed by the community Y. M. C. A. Volunteer visitors collected the data. The schedule was not confined to questions regarding church affiliation, but included those relating to social or marital state; number in family including husband, wife, children at home and others in the home; occupation, education, and nationality of each member of the household; number of rooms in the house; number of rooms for rent; size of lot; out-buildings on premises; water supply and sewer connection. By means of this simple blank a census of the town was made giving church connections, type of family, pertinent data concerning occupation, education, nationality, and the more important sanitary conditions of the house and yard. The schedule is interesting because of its simplicity. The questions are clear and the card is well planned.

In his book, "Technique of Social Surveys," Professor Elmer gives Form 2 (see page 228) as the type of home card used in the survey of Lawrence, Kansas, a city of about 14,000. The schedule may be roughly divided into five sections: (1) composition of family; (2) membership in church; (3) recreational facilities in home; (4) description of house and its sanitary conveniences; and (5) number of animals kept on premises. A question is also asked in the last section concerning the possession of an automobile. The visitor is required to make notations relative to the condition of the house, yard, and interior of the house.

Form 3 (see page 229) is suggested as a skeleton form for the survey of a town under 10,000, to be modified, of course, as occasion demands. It is divided into three

sections. The first covers the most important social data of the family; the second, the house and its surroundings; and the third, the recreation of each member of the family. By using both sides, a card five by eight inches might be used to good advantage.

Schedules used for rural surveys necessarily differ considerably from those used in urban districts. The problems found in the city—the needs for education and technical training, health, better housing and sanitation, and adequate recreation—are found also in the rural district, together with those of making the farm pay, of securing farm labor, and of making farming interesting and satisfying to the farm boy and girl. The farmer as well as the city dweller faces the problem of developing community spirit to carry on a community program for furthering general well-being. However, the problem is intensified for the farmer by the difficulties of distance and the frequent lack of cooperative spirit.

The Extension Division of the State University of Iowa prepared Form 4 (opposite page 234) to be used in making a rural survey in a county in which the people wished to collect the information themselves. For this reason the card is very simple. It asks for nationality, occupation, education, and health of father and mother; a list of all children, living or dead; the names of children living at home or elsewhere, with occupation of those out of school and the age and grade when they left school; and the names of those in school, with name of school and grade. Inquiry is made concerning serious illness of all children and their present health. Considerable space is given to the questions about recreation both in the home and outside the home. The people of this community were particularly interested in the possibility of obtaining a consolidated school, and for this reason questions were added to learn the sanitary conditions of the schools that the children attended.

Form 5 (opposite page 238) is especially interesting. It was prepared by a post-graduate student³¹ of the State University of Iowa and used by him in making a sur-

³¹ J. H. Krenmyre, North English, Iowa.

FORM 1

Date.....19....

Family name		Address			Ward			Phone		
Given name	Age	Res.	N.R	Church Pref.	None	S. S.	Occupation	Edu Rd. Wt.	Nat'l	Notes
HUSBAND										
Dead										
Divorced										
Gone										
WIFE										
Dead										
Divorced										
Gone										

CHILDREN (At Home)

	Sex	Age	Res. Mem.	N. R. Mem.	Pref.	None	S. S.	School	Grade

OTHERS (In Home)

	Sex	Age	Res. Mem.	N. R. Mem.	Pref.	None	S. S.	School	Grade

ENVIRONMENT

.....

No. of rooms..... Water used Remarks

No. rooms for rent... Out-buildings

Using city sewer..... Size of lot.....

Res. — Resident member. S. S. — Sunday-school.

N. R. — Non-resident member. Rd. — Read.

Pref. — Preference. Wt. — Write.

FORM 2

HOME CARD USED IN LAWRENCE, KANSAS, SURVEY

(From "Technique of Social Surveys," by Manuel C. Elmer)

1. Location: Street address.... Ward.... Add.... Block....
 2. Family: Number.... Adults (over 14).... Children (under 14)....
 3. Roomers: Number.... K. U. Students; Men.... Women.... Others; Men.... Women....
 4. Native State: Husband.... Wife.... How long in city: Husband.... Wife....
 5. Membership in what local church: Husband.... Wife....; Membership in church elsewhere: Husband.... Wife....; Church preference....
 6. Number Papers: Daily.... Local.... Others.... Number magazines.... Number books in library....
 7. Musical Instruments: Piano.... Organ.... Phonograph.... Others....
 8. Games: Card Games.... Caroms.... Checkers.... Dominoes.... Number toys....
 9. Athletic Equipment: Swing.... Punching-bag.... Football.... Baseball.... Tennis.... Other....
 10. Value residence.... Owned by family.... If not, amount rent per month....
 11. Number stories.... Rooms.... Bedrooms....
 12. City Water.... Well.... Cistern.... Cellar.... Bath and inside toilet....
 13. Heating: Coal-stoves.... Furnaces.... Gas.... Steam or hot water....
 14. Number Chickens.... Horses.... Cows.... Autos....
 15. Pets (number): Cats.... Dogs.... Rabbits.... Others....
- (To be filled by visitor) House.... Yard.... Interior....

APPENDIX

229

FORM 3

SUGGESTED FORM OF HOME CARD

Surname	Address	Ward	Block	How long in city?		How long in this house?	
Husband	Birth-place	Occupation	Wages	Education	Age and grade left school	Sickness during past year	
Wife							
Children boy or girl		School and grade or occupation					
Age							
Others in family: Relatives—who?		Roomers Men? No. Women? No.	Boarders Men? No. Women? No.	If husband is foreign-born, give date of naturalization papers.			
				1st?		2nd?	
House owned? Value? Rented? Rent paid?	No. Rooms	No. Bedrooms	No. Stories	Type of house: Single? Duplex? Apartment? No families? Light house-keeping? No. families?			
Size of lot? Size of yard?	Any out-buildings? What?	Outside toilet?	Inside toilet and bath?	Flower-garden? Vegetable-garden?			
Sewer connection?	Water City? Well? Cistern?	Heating	Lighting	Condition of yard? Repair of house?			
Recreation Husband Wife Children	Mem. of clubs—kind? Mem. of lodges—kind?	Attend dances how often? By whom given?		Attend movies how often?	Other recreation		
Papers taken: Daily? Weekly?	Magazines taken? Name No. books in home	Musical instruments Piano Organ Phonograph	Games Card games? Charoms? Checkers? Dominoes? No. toys	Athletic equipment Swing Tennis Baseball Punching-bag Football	Conveyances Auto? Carriage?	Livestock: Horses Cows Chickens Dogs Rabbits Cats	

Remarks

Date













Visitor

vey of a rural district in which he was serving as pastor of two rural churches. It makes special inquiry into the attitude of the family toward the church and toward community activities. Other questions relate to the modern conveniences on the farm, the methods of farming, and the desire or lack of desire to keep abreast of latest developments in agricultural science. Economic condition is indicated in the items concerning ownership and rental of farm and investment and income.

SYMBOLS FOR NEIGHBORHOOD SURVEY

(Missouri School of Social Economy)

I. Type of housing:

-  1. single house
-  2. rooming-houses
-  3. lodging-house
-  4. light housekeeping
-  5. two-family houses
-  6. tenements of three or more families
-  7. rear tenements
-  8. sub-rear
-  9. houses over stables
-  10. houses over and in rear of business
-  11. basement or cellars occupied
-  12. alley houses
- 13. percentage of lot covered by house
(in notes)

II. Condition of houses and premises:

1. good repair (in notes)
2. fair repair (in notes)
3. tumble-down houses (in notes)
- ✓ 4. vaults connected with sewer
- ∧ 5. vaults not connected with sewer
- P 6. privy—no vault
- W 7. well
- Y 8. city water in yard
- I 9. barns or stables
- 2 10. chicken-houses
- 3 11. pig-pens
- 4 12. pigeon-houses
- 5 13. dog-houses
- 6 14. ducks and duck-pond
- 7 15. rabbit-hutches
- × 16. garbage-pail uncovered
- X 16. garbage-pail covered
- ⊙W 17. ashes pits—wood
- ⊙B 17. ashes pits—brick
- ⊙ 18. rubbish
19. yard grassed (notes)
- yard paved (notes)
- yard dirt (notes)














III. Condition of yard:

clean (in notes)

fair condition (in notes)

attractive—trees—shrubbery (in notes)

IV. Public Buildings:

 fire station post-office public school (numbered) negro school parochial school Protestant church Roman Catholic church Greek Catholic church Jewish church library hospitals (numbered) clinics and dispensaries rest-room or comfort station Y. M. C. A. Y. W. C. A. settlements markets home for aged children's homes Salvation Army jail factories

V. Recreation:

	amusement-parks
	moving-picture theater
	theater
	dance-hall
	billiard and pool halls
	bowling-alley
	saloons
	lodge rooms
	clubs (numbered)
	tennis court
	golf links
	baseball grounds
	community center
	skating-rinks
	public parks
	playgrounds
	school playground
	vacant lots or field
	Turnverein
	shooting-galleries

VI. In notes:

Loafing-places
 Congregating centers
 Places where children are playing
 Games children are playing
 Conditions of streets: paved; dirt
 Condition of alleys: clean; dirty
 Blind alleys
 Racial groups within district
 Unprotected food supply

VII. Note

Lawyers	Drug-stores
Doctors	Dairies
	Centers of employment
Midwives	Factories, shops

RURAL WORK STORIES ³²WINCHESTER AND FREDERICK COUNTY (VIRGINIA)
CHAPTER

Frederick County (population 18,650) illustrates all the contrasts of Virginia. Its county-seat, Winchester (about 6000) has history, wealth, aristocracy, and talent. One section of the county lies in the Shenandoah Valley, has easy access to outside ideas, and is prosperous. As large a section is isolated by poor roads and mountains and is extremely undeveloped.

Largely due to leadership at Winchester—which interested and enlisted county people too—the chapter did a good piece of war work.

A county Home-Coming Parade gave these branches a chance to rally (in the first event of this kind ever tried) at a critical time after the armistice. Junior Red Cross activities were a definite part of the school curriculum in Winchester. It was the Winchester Junior exhibit that won first place at the National Educational Association meeting at Cleveland. Under the direction of the teacher in charge of Junior activities, the Senior Civics class studied their town with Miss Byington's "Know Your Community Better" as an outline. The Winchester Juniors gave a pad-and-pencil shower for a county school that had burned out.

An enthusiastic publicity committee kept the Red Cross in the minds of the people by frequent exhibits in down-town windows. The chapter extended to a peace-time program in October, 1919, a county nurse started school inspection in the fall, and an executive secretary was employed for a period of four months.

The chapter chairman, with other influential citizens, signed the letter requesting that one of the three surveys to be made in December, 1919, in connection with the community study course at Washington, be made in their county.

On the night the report was discussed with the local study committee in February, 1920, a new executive secretary, a mature woman with wide experience, was hired.

The secretary has divided the county into sixteen administrative districts, choosing natural boundaries of school and magisterial district lines and recognizing the old branch centers.

She writes to a former branch representative in each district, asking her to call a meeting of citizens interested in Red Cross and the community. The secretary explains the work other parts of the county are starting, and leaves them to organize a committee and send in names—this procedure because of strong antagonism between Winchester and the county. In the more remote

³² Extracts from reports of the American Red Cross, Rural Service.

parts of the county meetings seem to be best attended after church on Sunday.

The secretary advises the branches to have these informal meetings approximately once in two weeks—she plans to attend meetings herself about quarterly. Several communities are asking for her more than that. Miss Haines stated that fourteen out of sixteen communities had responded to her request to call this meeting, and committees of from six to ten members are formed and doing active work in these fourteen districts.

Five definite projects have been presented and started—usually two or three in a community. These projects are as follows:

1. The completion of the war job—that is, following up each ex-service man and rendering him all necessary service.
2. The extension of home service to civilian families.
3. A short course in home nursing of from six to eight lessons, given by the Red Cross county nurse. In the more remote parts of the county these have been given one a day consecutively to avoid the transportation difficulties.
4. A summer Junior Red Cross program, which includes the rat and fly campaigns.
5. Plans for a series of lectures or entertainments in the school-houses. This is the beginning of a recreational program.

The secretary has a rough time limit for some of the present projects. The nursing classes, for instance, were urged for the summer, since the nurse was busy with the school work during the school year.

The war job was presented as a this summer's project or an impossibility.

The Red Cross chapter has been able to get almost one hundred per cent. record of all ex-service men by this means. The secretary has a card file in her office, with different colored clips indicating the men who were killed in service, the disabled men, the men who have applied for compensation, the men receiving compensation, and the men taking vocational training.

Feeble-minded problems have been prominent among the family cases referred by the branch committees. The secretary is greatly puzzled concerning the numerous feeble-minded problems that have been brought to her attention through these district committees. There is not sufficient institutional provision for such cases in the state of Virginia, and like all other states no legislation compelling feeble-minded people to enter institutions. Madison Heights, the only public institution providing care for epileptic and feeble-minded persons, is now overcrowded.

She feels that the information home service secretaries give concerning such cases should be referred to some agency that will bring it to the attention of the state legislature, in order that con-

sideration may be given this problem with a view to obtaining more institutional provision and compulsory segregation for feeble-minded cases.

The work of a very good nurse has been a large factor in the whole county program. One case of smallpox was reported about a week ago, but the house is not quarantined. In the meantime another case has developed, which was probably contracted from the first case. The first case was reported in Pluck's Alley, the small tenement district of Winchester.

The nurse accompanies the secretary to the Red Cross districts when home service meetings are held at the school-houses, to give illustrated talks on health.

The nurse is conducting a monthly children's clinic. Last month forty children were examined, and since that time five of this number have had the operation recommended for tonsils and adenoids. Local doctors volunteer their services for this work.

Projects in Winchester

The sanitary conditions in this part of the city (in Pluck's Alley) are appalling. There is no sewerage connection, and all toilets are open and not adequately screened. A number of the residents on this street keep pigs, rabbits, and other live stock. The street is not paved, and the mud in rainy weather makes the road almost impassable. The secretary is working with the city council to improve conditions in this neighborhood. The Red Cross nurse arranged to vaccinate all the people on this street after the first smallpox case was reported.

A member of the executive committee of the Red Cross has been working with the secretary to secure a playground for the children of Pluck's Alley. They were unsuccessful in securing a lot in that neighborhood, the owner demanding such a high price that they were unable to pay it. However, the secretary has secured three girls who take the children from this neighborhood two or three times a week to the Friends' playground in the upper part of Winchester.

Winchester boasts a very modern, up-to-date Boy Scout building. A very splendid swimming-pool is in the building. While the Boy Scouts are in camp certain girls' clubs are allowed the use of this pool. These clubs represent the better class of girls, and they asked the secretary to give them swimming lessons. She has consented to do this work, feeling that it would be wise to make this contribution to a better class, thus making the public realize that the Red Cross is there to serve all classes of people.

The Ministerial Association has been talking over plans with the secretary to federate the welfare work of Winchester and give all relief through one channel under the supervision of a trained worker. This plan has not been entirely worked out yet, but the secretary feels that she will be able to come to a satisfactory agreement with them.

The Community Study Committee expects to form a nucleus of a permanent community council this fall, when it hopes to provide for further community needs—among them the operation of a juvenile court and probation system.

Summary

Extension—October, 1919

County study—December, 1919

Personnel:

Executive secretary, October, 1919

Public health nurse for county, September, 1919

Active Junior Red Cross leader is a high-school teacher

Projects:

War work

Family work

Home nursing

Junior rat and fly campaigns

Lecture-entertainments in rural communities

Swimming-classes

Play supervision for children in small tenement district

Vaccination

ATHENS (GEORGIA) CHAPTER

Athens Chapter has for its jurisdiction the whole of Clarke County (population 26,111). Athens, the chapter headquarters, is a city of 16,748.

After a survey of Clarke County conducted in February, 1920, by the Southern Division in cooperation with representative citizens, the local Red Cross chapter decided to revive activities by employing a public health nurse and a trained social secretary.

When the secretary arrived, March 1, the consensus of opinion was that the work was to be confined to the 175 ex-service men in training at the University of Georgia and the ex-service men in Clarke and surrounding counties, 38 of whom had already been served in February by the secretary pro tem. No branch had been established in the county, and, though county cases had been handled during the war, the rural people felt that the Red Cross meant very little to them. Since the executive committee was not ready to extend home service to civilians, and there were very few soldier cases in the county, the secretary began to interest the county people through the Junior Red Cross. A county teachers' institute gave her the opportunity to present the need of Red Cross service in rural districts, and the suggestion was made to conduct a sanitation campaign in the thirteen county schools for whites. Junior membership was to be obtained, not through fee but through service in eradicating flies and cleaning up the community, and the senior chapter offered \$50 in prizes to stimulate interest. The county Junior chairman, who is also the home economics agent, with the cooperation of the teachers,

created a good deal of public sentiment for sanitation through this campaign. It was conducted in the month of April in coöperation with a program outlined by the Extension Department of the State College of Agriculture, and the prizes awarded at the county schools' general meeting at the College, April 30. Especial attention was attracted by the fly posters, the first attempt of the rural schools at making posters.

As Winterville is the only trading center in the county besides Athens, a community meeting was early requested there to consider organizing a branch. Easter Sunday morning a mass-meeting was held at one of the churches, and after the secretary had outlined the peace program of the Red Cross (to the extent of one hour and fifteen minutes) a branch was organized. The chairman became automatically a member of the executive committee. A local Junior chairman had been appointed, and it was resolved to support the sanitation campaign of the Juniors.

In order to permeate the county and yet not overlap or compete with existing organizations, it was decided to work through the schools and women's community clubs, organized in each school district by the Farm Bureau (extension work of the State College of Agriculture). These clubs are federated in the County Farm Women's Bureau, which meets once a month in Athens, and also with the Federation of Women's Clubs. The Red Cross nurse and secretary are members of the Farm Women's Bureau and make reports of their work at each meeting.

When the Red Cross nurse arrived there had been practically no health work in the county except one dental examination under the Farm Bureau. In coöperation with this movement she began a child health program in the schools. She inspected children, did follow-up work in a good many cases, and assisted Dr. Haygood of the State Board of Health in making a demonstration of school children at Winterville. A Red Cross nursing committee was appointed at Winterville to support the work there. In other districts she met with the community clubs, and at Oconee Heights, Tuckston, and East Athens (industrial district) classes were organized in home nursing. An especially interesting feature of her work is the Little Mothers' League at East Athens for instructing the older girls in how to care for the little ones while the parents are at work in the mill.

In coöperation with the home economics agent, the nurse has assisted in the conducting of nutrition clinics at the State Normal School and at the county court-house. The doctor's fee is paid by the Red Cross chapter. These clinics are to be conducted until all children enrolled become physically normal.

Since the community clubs were interested in child welfare, the secretary secured their indorsement of an effort to begin a county-wide playground movement. Throughout June and July she conducted a story and play hour in Athens, which brought a good deal of newspaper publicity, and the Winterville club con-

ducted a similar story hour. A playground secretary was furnished by the Southern Division, July 20, for a month's demonstration in Athens, Tuckston school, where the playground movement was indorsed and interest aroused in a county playground system. In Athens a strong citizens' committee succeeded in securing the coöperation of the Kiwanis Club, Rotary Club, Chamber of Commerce, and Women's Club to support the movement. The Kiwanis Club has pledged \$600 to equip one playground, and the combined representatives from all these organizations and the Red Cross will launch a drive through the papers for \$2000 for equipment if the Board of Education will employ a supervisor of play as a permanent member of the city faculty. This proposition is to be presented to the Board of Education August 23, and Athens expects to be sure of three playgrounds and a supervisor by September. The movement will be continued in the city and county, with a county playground system as the goal. The county playground system has already become a part of the editorial policy of one of the Athens papers.

In the meantime, the family welfare work has increased from thirty-eight to a hundred and one cases per month (in June). The executive committee has extended home service to civilians, and the secretary is locating county cases through the coöperation of the community clubs. The idea of family welfare work is not clear to the rural people yet, but they have become interested in the general child welfare movement, and family welfare is being linked to that. Each school district will be asked to appoint a civilian relief committee when school reopens in September. Very little volunteer service has been secured so far, although in Athens the secretary has a social service committee of twenty-five representative women. Some of these women have requested that the secretary give a chapter course in social work in the fall, in order that they may do more effective volunteer work. If possible, such a course will be given in Athens and in the county community clubs to stimulate volunteer service. The nurse has more cases in the county than in Athens and has gradually awakened the county to greater confidence in the Red Cross.

Miss SUSIE G. DAWSON, *Executive Secretary*

Miss AGNES CRAWFORD, *Public Health Nurse*

Summary

Survey—February, 1920

Personnel:

Temporary home service secretary during month of February, 1920

Social secretary arrived March 1, 1920

Public health nurse

County Junior chairman

Approach to rural districts through Junior work

Projects:

Work through schools and women's clubs organized in each school district by the Farm Bureau—federated
Sanitation campaign in county schools
Child health program
Little Mothers' League
Nutrition clinic
Classes in home nursing
Family welfare
County playground movement
Additional projects listed in division survey of chapter activities, July 1, 1920—two first-aid classes, seven Junior auxiliaries, information.

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N.C.S.W., Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work.

Am. City (T. & C. Ed.), American City Magazine (Town and Country Edition).

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